A BRIEF WORLD HISTORY

NORMAN W. DEWITT



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BY

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PREFACE

This volume has been planned to furnish a brief survey of World History from the beginning down to the end of the year 1933. The needs of secondary schools and the lay reader have been steadily kept in mind. Details have been sacrificed for the sake of keeping the main movements constantly in view. Each chapter is headed by an analysis of topics and the Index is rather full. The Study Helps at the end offer abundant collateral reading. The publishers have been generous with maps and plans. It has been the aim to employ a simple and straightforward style.

Grateful acknowledgments are due to Professor C. T. Currelly, Director of the Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology, who has generously furnished photographs and also made numerous suggestions concerning the influence of arts and crafts upon the course of history; for example, the contribution made by the introduction of chinaware to public health, pages 250 and 471. Professor G. A. Cornish, of the Ontario College of Education, very kindly loaned photographs from his magnificent collection. Mr. W. D. Gregory called my attention to the passage quoted from John Bright, page 610. Professor Walter N. Sage, of the University of British Columbia, was good enough to read the whole work in manuscript and make invaluable corrections and criticisms. My son, Norman J. DeWitt, M.A., has assisted in various ways. It remains to express my appreciation of the unfailing courtesy of the president and staff of The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited, and also their associated house, The Macmillan Company of New York, who have been very helpful in the matter of selection of photographs.

N. W. D.

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WORLD HISTORY

PART I

PRE-HISTORY

GENERAL OUTLINE

The culture of the earliest times was somewhat uniform the world over: for example, arrow-heads and axes of stone are found abundantly on all five continents. With the dawn of agriculture a separation occurred. From India eastward a Rice Area was developed. Westward of India a Wheat Area came into being. (See map, page 41.)

In the Rice Area was born the civilization of Ancient India, which was shared to some extent by Burma, Siam, Indo-China and the East Indies. North of the Himalayas arose the civilization of Ancient China. During the Middle Ages Japan was brought within the circle of this culture.

The Wheat Area included Mesopotamia, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, and Mediterranean lands in general. It also extended itself along the margin of the Atlantic as far as Britain.

In the vast central plains of Europe and Asia was a primeval Horse and Cattle Area, or Milk and Meat Area, where agriculture was almost unknown. The horse-riding races of these regions bred daring leaders, who from time to time conquered the settled races of the Rice and Wheat Areas.

In both the Rice Area and the Wheat Area great empires arose, but the peoples of the Rice Area never carried their civilization across the oceans. The men of the Wheat Area, on the other hand, not only founded empire after empire in the Mediterranean region, but also created the famous nations of western Europe; they transplanted their civilization in North and South America; they crossed the oceans and urged their trade, customs and beliefs upon India, China and Japan. They have recently divided the whole continent of Africa among themselves. This is World History.

CHAPTER I

EARLIEST MAN

The Antiquity of the Earth—The Story of the River Cañons—The Story of the Rocks—The First Living Things—The First Mammals—Man not Native to the Americas—Perhaps Native to Asia—The Sussex Skull—Neanderthal Man; his Tool Kit—The Bear Hunters—The Horse Hunters—Art of the Cavemen—Small Numbers of the Hunters—Men of the New Stone or Neolithic Age—The Tool Kit of Neolithic Man—The Spread of Agriculture—The Horse as a Beast of Burden—The Art of Cooking—The Age of Bronze.

World History is the story of mankind. It is a long, long story covering hundreds of thousands of years, but it is not so long a story as the history of the Earth itself. Nothing is more certain than the vast antiquity of the Earth. Its story is written everywhere on its surface, in the lakes, rivers and seas, in the soil, rocks and mountains.

According to men of science it has required at least 25,000 years for the Niagara River to cut a channel seven miles long and 150 feet deep through the rocks, but this is as nothing. The Grand Cañon of the Colorado River is 280 miles long and thousands of feet deep. To carve this passage must have required hundreds of thousands of years, but this is only part of a yet longer story.

The rocks of the Grand Cañon, 5,000 to 9,000 feet above the sea, contain the remains of creatures that lived beneath the surface of the sea at the very dawn of plant and animal life. Countless generations of them lived and died, sank to the bottom and were slowly imbedded in the ooze at the bottom of the ocean. In the process of the ages the ooze was turned to stone; the bottom of the ocean slowly rose. The waters slowly receded and the new land was lifted to the height of mountains. As the land rose the rivers began to carve its surface and carry away the sands to make new soil in distant plains.

The first living things, like the tiny creatures that build the coral reefs, lived in the sea. Then came the age of living things that ventured out of the water to crawl or run upon the land. These were the reptiles. Gigantic, lizard-like animals came into being, walking clumsily over the



Courtesy Canadian Air Board

NIAGARA FALLS

surface of the earth, wading through the hot swamps and cropping the leaves of tree-ferns and palms. There were birds too, with scales on their legs and feathers on their bodies, each laying eggs and producing offspring after its own kind.

Last of all appeared the mammals, which do not lay eggs, but bring forth their young from their own bodies and suckle them while they are weak and helpless. These included the animals that now live with man upon the earth

and many more besides. There were small horses and camels no larger than antelopes, the ancestors of horses and camels of our time. There were huge bears and giant sabre-toothed tigers far larger than the tigers and bears that exist to-day. Over North America and Europe and Asia roamed herds of gigantic mammoths and mastodons



Canadian Government Photo

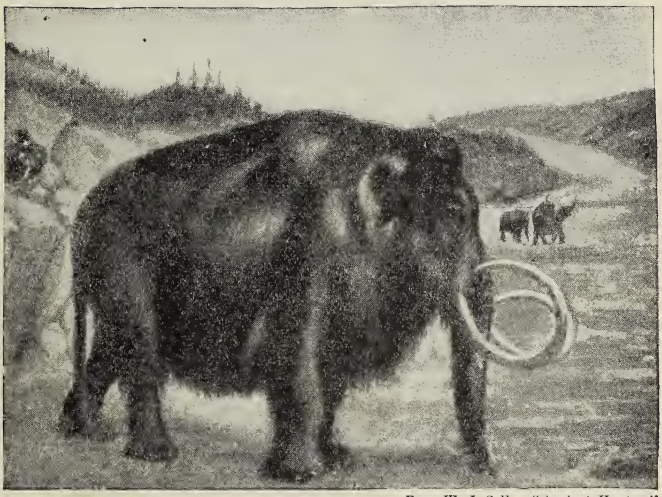
MUSK-OXEN, CAPE SPARBO, DEVON ISLAND. SURVIVORS OF THE ICE AGE.

huger than our elephants of India and Africa. Their massive bones and tusks are often found in gravel-beds, and perfect specimens have come to light in Siberia, preserved in great masses of ice near the shores of the Arctic.

There were no human beings in the earlier ages of living things. Man made his first appearance during the age of mammals. It is not known to which continent he first belonged, but some facts seem certain and others seem probable. It seems certain that man is not native to North and South America. No bones or skulls have ever been found in the Americas that seem to be very ancient, and it is agreed

that the Red Indian races crossed over from Asia thousands of years ago. It seems certain, therefore, that the home of the first men was in the Eastern Hemisphere.

In the Old World also certain limiting lines may be drawn. In Europe, Egypt and Palestine all human remains, whether found by chance or by careful search, have been carefully studied. These throw much light upon the pro-



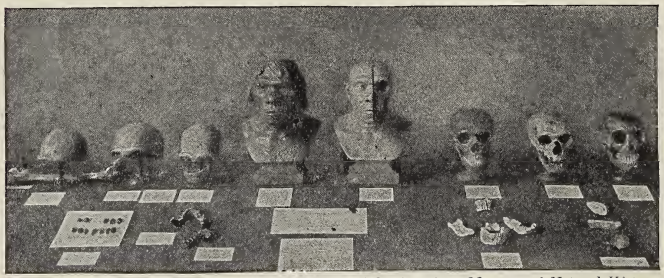
From W. J. Sollas, "Ancient Hunters"

THE MAMMOTH OF THE STONE AGE

A fairly common animal in Europe during the Stone Age. It was about the size of a present-day elephant. Its tusks, large and curved, were sometimes over ten feet in length.

gress of mankind, though little upon its origin. In Asia as a whole, outside of Palestine and the Gobi Desert in the north, very little systematic study has been done. Scholars, therefore, have hopes that the caves and valleys of this vast continent may yet throw a far more abundant light upon the coveted secret of human beginnings.

The best records we possess of the life of man in the far distant past come from widely separated regions, but all of them in Asia, Africa and Europe. In 1891-1892 a French scientist found parts of the skull and skeleton of a very primitive sort of human being on the island of Java. It lay deeply buried among the bones of animals that no longer exist. In all respects it was distinctly human, but



Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History

NEANDERTHAL MAN

A photograph of the Neanderthal exhibit in the American Museum of Natural History. It includes some of the bones and tools of the Neanderthalers. The heads in the centre show how Neanderthal skulls have been utilized by a modern scientist (Professor J. H. McGregor of Columbia University) as the basis for an attempt to reconstruct the physical appearance of Neanderthal man.

the brain was small and the jaw was powerful, with teeth to match. This is known as the Java man. Quite recently other relics of a very ancient human being came to light in the soil of a cave near Peiping (Peking). It was evident that he knew how to kindle fires and to make rude tools of stone. This is known as the Peking man.

The oldest skull known in Europe was found in England at Piltdown, Sussex, about 1911, in a gravel-pit. It was, of course, fossilized or petrified, that is, turned to stone. Along with it were found crude implements of stone and bone. The chin of the skull retreats sharply and the jaws protrude. The owner could have picked a bone very clean.

The forehead and back of the head are well developed. The race to which it belonged was cunning and keen-sighted. This is known as Piltdown man. At Heidelberg in Germany a similar specimen was found.

A still more famous discovery was made in Germany near Düsseldorf in 1857, called the Neanderthal man. This type has since become better known through discoveries in France, Belgium, Spain, Czechoslovakia and Galilee in Palestine. The skull is marked by prominent ridges across the forehead over the eyes, giving to the face a scowling look. Arms and legs are short but very muscular. The thumbs are not so easily opposed to the fingers as in living races of men. Tools, however, were used, scrapers and knives of stone roughly shaped.. Spears and clubs were in use. Round stones were also sewed into little sacks attached to a throng and swung like a club. Certain Indian tribes in South America have been known to do the same. For clothing, the skins of animals were used. In 1931 two skulls of this Neanderthal type were found far away in Java. In 1921 a similar heavy-browed skull had come to light in a cave in Rhodesia, South Africa. In 1932 very ancient human remains were reported from Oldaway, Kenya Colony, Central Africa.

These short-limbed Neanderthal men used to make prey of giant bears, larger than grizzly bears. A pile of skulls of these animals has been found in a cave in Austria. They were neatly arranged by the hunters after a raid upon the cave where the beasts were hibernating. Every skull had been crushed on the left side. The men had frightened the bears with flaming torches, and knocked out their brains as they passed through a narrow passage between a huge rock and the wall of the cavern. The flesh had been cooked and eaten on the spot, as the bones and remains of fire indicate.

A later race of hunters once lived in Spain and France, known as Cromagnon man. Their homes were in caves,

where they drew and painted artistic pictures of the animals upon which they lived. These were deer, reindeer, bisons and horses. The horse was not yet domesticated. He was hunted. The hunters cut off only the thick flesh of the rump and shoulders and carried it home. Rib bones are not found by their ancient fire-places. The American Indians used to do the same with the buffalo. Only the rump and the hump were used.

These cave-men had also bows and arrows. One of their own paintings on the wall of a cave shows hunters attacking a herd of deer. Another depicts a man with a smoking torch gathering wild honey from a tree. Human beings were making progress. By this time they had weapons and tools of stone, bone and horn. They protected themselves from the cold with clothing, fire and shelter. The climate of central Europe was then very cold. A great ice cap covered the land as far south as England and Germany.

The cave-men were never numerous in any single district, although their manner of life was practised from France to Palestine and probably over large tracts of Asia and Africa. We know they were not numerous because they lived by the chase, and hunters require wide territories. In America a single village of forest Indians consisting of four families required fully two hundred square miles of hunting range. It is estimated that all the hunting tribes of North America did not exceed half a million in number over a territory of 5,000,000 square miles. It is different with men who plant seeds and grow crops. In Peru alone, where Indian corn was cultivated, there were 10,000,000 Indians.

The hunting cave-men of Europe lived in the Palaeolithic or Old Stone Age. They were replaced or absorbed by newcomers of a different race who made better tools, tilled the soil and learned to keep goats, sheep, swine and cattle. They also grew flax, made twine and rope, spun thread of linen and yarn of wool, and wove cloth. They moulded dishes of clay with their hands, and burned them to hardness in the fire.

This stage is known as the Neolithic or New Stone Age. It is so called from the superior tools and weapons that came into use. These included polished stone axes, chisels and gouges. Handles were added to tools, horn handles for chisels and wooden handles for axes. Hammer-stones were usually grooved and lashed into a split stick. It was a long time before men learned to make a hole in the axe or hammer and insert the handle. They first put the tool into



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

FLINT CARVING KNIFE WITH GOLD HANDLE. FLINT SAW. FROM EGYPT

the handle instead of the handle into the tool. They were experts in the use of binding materials, withes and thongs of leather.

We know how the white man in Virginia learned from the Indian how to plant maize in hills and heap the earth around it with a hoe. In some such way our ancestors in Europe must have learned from strangers how to plant wheat and flax in the right way at the right season. The seeds of these grains must have passed from tribe to tribe just as the seeds of corn were carried this way and that in America. It is possible that the knowledge of wheat spread from ancient Egypt, where the floods of the Nile taught men to sow at the right time. They cast their wheat upon the waters, and found it after many days. The story of rice in India and China must have been similar.

We know how horses were introduced into America by the Spaniards, and how they were adopted by all the Plains Indians within little more than a century. In like manner the domesticated horse seems to have reached Europe from Central Asia about 3000 B.C. For ages it was used only in war, either to carry the fighter or to draw him in a chariot. Camels were confined to Arabia and to a second area in Central Asia until 1000 B.C. The most ancient beasts of burden were the donkey, the ox, and man.

Our remote ancestors ate their meat raw, as the American Indians often did, and many savage races still do. The use of fire became common in the Old Stone Age, but the art of cooking made great advances with the use of grains. The heads of wheat were stored under ground. The chaff was burned off in a flame and the grains shaken on to a flat stone. They were ground by rubbing with a second stone. The loaf was baked on a hot flat stone covered with an upturned dish. Coals were heaped upon the dish. The loaf was often marked with a cross. This was an acknowledgment that it was the gift of Mother Earth. It is the original of our Hot Cross Bun, which antedates the Christian era by many ages.

The New Stone Age was followed in Europe, Egypt and China by the Bronze and Iron Ages. Bronze is copper mixed with ten per cent. of tin. Copper and bronze were probably discovered accidentally through heating stones for purposes of cooking. American Indians used to boil their meat in vessels of wood or birch bark by dropping red-hot stones into the water. Their European ancestors almost certainly employed similar methods. A piece of copper ore would have yielded metallic copper in the fire. At any rate, men learned somewhere to make tools of copper and tin. The Bronze Age began in southern Europe about 3,000 B.C. It was unknown in India, where copper was used without tin. The Iron Age began in Europe about 1000 B.C. We are still living in it.

CHAPTER II

THE NEW STONE AGE IN AMERICA

The Deficiencies of Written Histories—Information dug out of the Earth—What may be learned of Stone Age Man in America—The Indian's Kit of Tools.

THE SKILL OF THE INDIANS.—The Making of an Arrow-Head—The Use of the Hammer-Stone—The Use of Drills—The Making of Stone Knives—Indian Corn or Maize.

NATURAL FOOD AREAS.—The Maize Area—The Buffalo Area—The Seal and Caribou Area—The Beaver Area—The Salmon Area—The Chief Plants of the Indians.

EMPIRE OF THE INCAS.—The Government of the Incas—Tribal Customs of the Indians—Their Religion—Survivals of Stone Age Religion.

It may seem a violent reversal of the order of time to treat of the American Indian at this point, but excellent reasons may be given for so doing. The earliest writers of history in Egypt, Europe and China had no interest in ordinary arts and crafts, and they failed to preserve for us much of the information that still abounded in their day. They wrote chiefly about kings and their wars, though often about priests, temples and oracles. They neglected the common man. They left a very imperfect and one-sided picture of themselves and only fantastic and utterly unscientific accounts of their forerunners.

The consequence is that men are compelled to dig their information out of the earth, which preserves the scanty remnants of ancient arts and crafts. In the compacted soil of caves in France and Austria investigators have found tools of bone, horn and stone with which primitive man solved the problems of living in those far-distant times. To interpret the story told by these paltry remains is a puzzle infinitely difficult, and always scientific guesswork at its very best. In America, on the other hand, was found a living stone age culture in full bloom. To study it is, therefore, a most profitable lesson in the interpretation of the early ages of Europe and Asia.

In America it has been possible to see a man of the Stone Age in the very act of chipping an arrow-head into shape, and so to learn his method and estimate his skill. A Spanish traveller saw Indian women cutting meat off the carcass of a buffalo with knives of flint. A French visitor in Nova



THE INTIHUATANA, ABOVE PISACC (PRE-INCAIC RUINS), PERU

Scotia saw the Indian women cooking moose meat in log troughs by dropping hot stones into the water; the men greedily drank the liquid grease. Jesuit missionaries have left information that enables us to estimate the density of population among hunting tribes. Spanish writers have left records of the agricultural civilization of ancient Mexico and Peru. Careful scholars have been able to separate the great natural food areas of the New World, which helps us to visualize the food areas of Europe and Asia, about which we know so much less. When the white man first came to America the cultivation of maize or Indian corn was spreading among the natives, and it is possible to trace its pro-

gress, which furnishes valuable hints as to the spread of wheat and rice crops in Europe and Asia. This whole body of knowledge of the American Indian assists the imagination to reconstruct the far more mysterious beginnings of civilization in the Old World.

Columbus discovered America in 1492, but men of the New Stone Age had found it ten thousand years earlier. They came from Asia. They possessed only one domestic animal, the dog, but they already carried a good kit of tools, polished stone hammers, axes, chisels, knives and drills. In addition to these, they still used implements invented in the Old Stone Age, harpoons, picks, awls and needles of bone. They had spears and bows and arrows. Arrow-heads were made of chipped flint just as in Asia, Europe and Egypt.

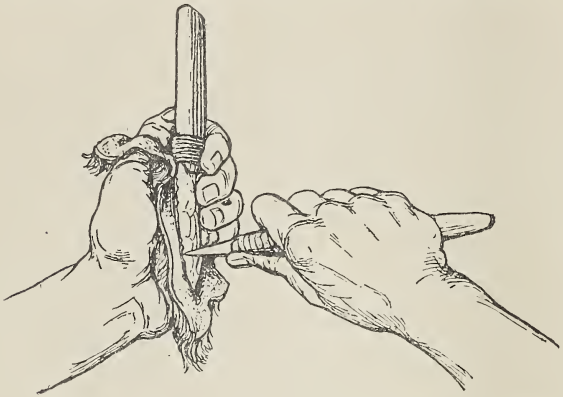
The Skill of the Indians

The skill of some American Indians was marvellous. The Peruvians of South America could dress the hardest stones with perfect precision. They could construct a stone wall of enormous blocks with the same degree of accuracy attained by the ancient Greek or Egyptian with metal tools. The Mayas of Central America and the Aztecs of Mexico also built enormous structures of stone, and adorned them with beautiful carvings. They made images of men and animals in stone, both in three dimensions and in low relief on the surfaces of walls.

The Indian of the forest and the plains was less ambitious than his Aztec brother, but hardly less skilful. To trim a flake of flint into an arrow-head was a matter of two minutes. The only tools required were a pick made of bone or horn and a piece of deerskin to protect the palm of the hand. Holding the flint firmly in his left hand, he would shape it quickly by pressing or chipping off small flakes. Flint knives were similarly made. The first white man who saw Indian women cutting up the carcass of a buffalo relates that they sharpened a dull knife by chipping the edge

with their teeth. He declares that better carving could not have been done with knives of steel.

The Indian was very expert in using a hammer-stone. This is a circular disc of hard stone about three or four inches in diameter and an inch or more thick. The centre is hollowed out on both sides to afford a firm grip to the



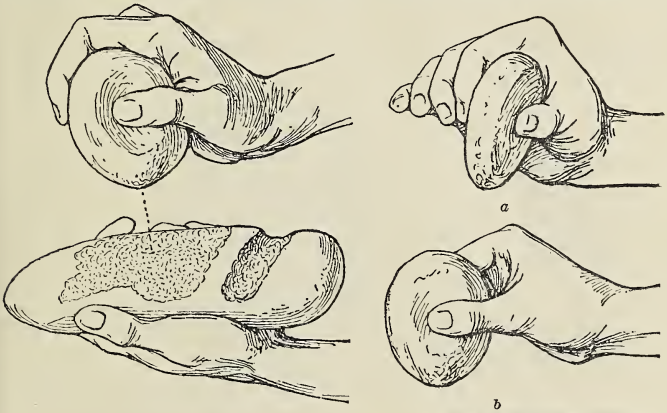
Courtesy Smithsonian Institution

IMPLEMENTS IN THE HANDS OF PAIUTE INDIAN

thumb and finger. By means of this, with rapid blows, he would shape a suitable stone into the form of an axe. The undressed stone was held in the left hand and turned deftly to receive the blows where required, just as the blacksmith turns his iron on the anvil while his helper strikes it. This process is called "crumbling". The surface is trimmed away in the form of dust. A polish could be added by means of grinding.

Natural flint occurs as hard roundheads in clay banks, and in chalk beds in England. To obtain it the Indians dug over large tracts of ground, sometimes as much as a hundred acres. They also sank pits and cut tunnels. The flint stones were broken into rough flakes on the spot and carried away to the encampment to be trimmed. The original flint

quarries are easily recognized by the great quantities of flakes strewn about. At other places workshops are found, where various implements were shaped and polished. Some of these are close to Washington in the valley of the Potomac. The whole process was very wasteful, and many a stone knife or axe was broken in the making and thrown



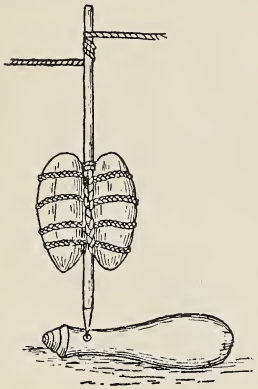
Courtesy Smithsonian Institution

SHAPING A STONE BY THE PECKING PROCESS AND METHOD OF HOLDING THE DISCOIDAL HAMMERSTONE

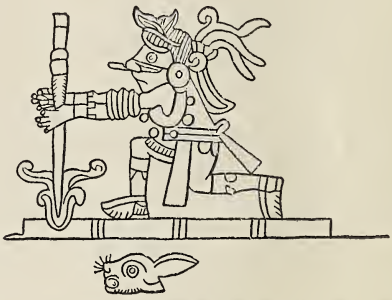
away. These half-finished pieces often reveal the secrets of the methods used. Precisely similar finds have been made in England, Belgium and elsewhere in Europe.

The hammer-stone seems to have been the Indian's constant companion. It is often found in his grave. A more delicate tool was the flint drill with which he bored the stem of his tobacco pipe. The most famous pipes were made of reddish claystone quarried in Pipestone County, Minnesota. It was a custom of the Indians to visit this quarry every June or July. The claystone is easily carved with stone tools when freshly quarried. The pipes were highly prized, and were transported far and wide as articles of trade and barter.

Drills were worked like an awl held in the hand or driven by a thong wound around a shaft and drawn to and fro by means of a bow. In drilling beads or pieces of shell called wampum, a hard point of flint or bone was inserted in the end of the shaft. Sometimes weights of stone were tied to the shaft to increase the pressure, just as was done



WEIGHTED DRILL



Courtesy Smithsonian Institution

PRIMITIVE METHOD OF DRILLING

in ancient Egypt. The same type of drill without a point could be used for making fire by boring into a piece of very dry wood. Fire produced by this method was believed to be pure in the sight of the gods, and among some tribes all old fires were carefully extinguished and replaced by this pure fire once a year. A similar rite was practised once a year in ancient Rome by the priestesses called Vestal Virgins.

The best stone knives were made of flint or obsidian. The latter is a brilliant volcanic glass, often jet black in colour, which with skill can be broken into enormous flakes. From these flakes long knives could be made by pressing or striking small chips off the edges. Knives have been found in California as long as thirty inches. Smaller flakes were

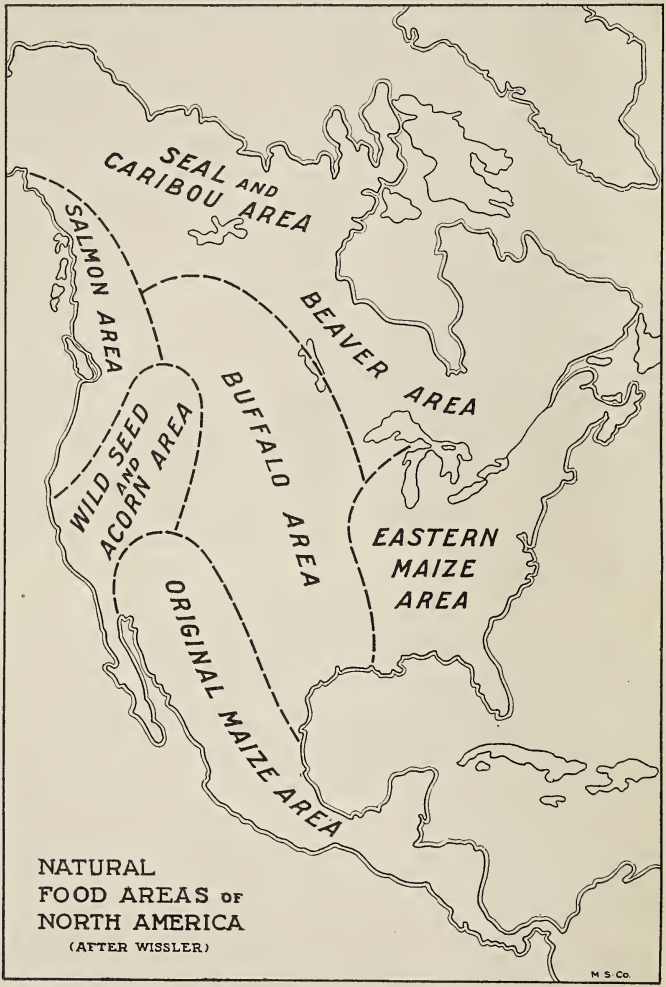
used as razors, but the edge was quickly dulled, and about twenty of them were necessary for a shave. Obsidian is found in enormous quantities from the Yellowstone National Park southwards, but the most famous quarries are in the State of Hidalgo, Mexico. The site is known as the Mountain of the Knives, and the workings cover hundreds of acres. It was already ancient when the first Spaniards arrived in the country. Similar quarries existed in the Aegean Sea on the island of Melos, and furnished razors for the priests of ancient Egypt, who shaved their heads.

Indian corn played the same rôle in America as wheat and barley in Egypt and Babylon and rice in China. It was developed by long cultivation out of a wild grass that is native to Central America. It was the foundation of the high culture attained by the Indians of ancient Mexico and Peru. It was corn that made an agriculturist of the Indian hunter. It induced him to settle down, to build permanent villages and even great cities. It taught him the use of the digging stick and the hoe. No ploughs were invented because corn was planted in hills, not in furrows, and the Indian had no oxen.

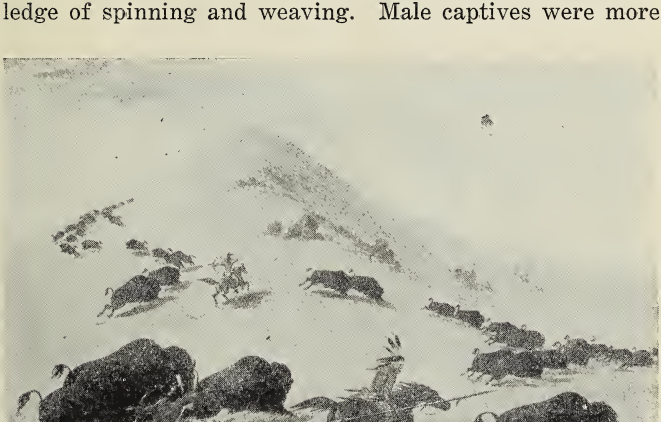
Natural Food Areas

We can view the knowledge of corn and its cultivation spreading in America just as the knowledge of wheat and barley and their cultivation must have spread among the Neolithic Folk of ancient Europe and Asia. From Central America it was carried to South America. It followed the shores of the Caribbean Sea to the West Indies. From the West Indies it reached Florida and crept up the Atlantic side of the continent, even to the Great Lakes. The region where corn was cultivated is known as the Maize Area, because *maize* is the proper name of the Indian corn.

On the Atlantic side of North America the knowledge of maize was carried from tribe to tribe by Indian women captured in war. It was they who dug the ground with


SEAL AND CARIBOU AREA
SALMON AREA
BEAVER AREA
WILD SEED AND ACORN AREA
BUFFALO AREA
EASTERN MAIZE AREA
ORIGINAL MAIZE AREA
NATURAL FOOD AREAS OF NORTH AMERICA
(AFTER WISSLER)
M S Co.

sharp sticks, planted the seeds and tended the young plants with a hoe made of a flat stone or the shoulder-blade of a deer or a buffalo. These captive women played the same part in spreading the knowledge of maize that captive women in Europe must have played in spreading the knowledge of spinning and weaving. Male captives were more



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

BUFFALO HUNTING WITH BOW, ARROW AND SPEAR. George Catlin.

often killed, but the women were carried away to be the servants of their new masters. This good word can be said of war and slavery in early times, that they carried far and wide the arts of agriculture and housekeeping.

On the vast treeless plains of North America between the Rocky Mountains and the eastern forests no maize was grown except in isolated spots. This is known as the Buffalo Area. Vast herds of these huge animals thronged the prairies from Texas to Canada. They furnished to the Plains Indians both food and clothing. The Indians had

no fixed dwellings. They packed up their wigwams (teepees) and followed the herds. The men shot the buffaloes with arrows. The women cut off the flesh of the hump and the rump with flint knives. They crushed the big bones with stone hammers to secure the marrow, just as the cave-men of ancient France had been used to doing ten thousand years before. They crushed the skulls to secure the brains, which were rubbed into the leather to soften and



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

SPECIMENS OF WOVEN INDIAN BASKETRY, B.C.

cure it. The Plains Indians made little progress. Food was too abundant and life too unsettled.

There were other great food areas in North America. Along the Arctic from Alaska to Greenland lived and still live the Eskimos. This is the Seal and Caribou Area. Life was so hard for the inhabitants that they spent all their energy in the quest of food and clothing. The Old Stone Age lingered there. Most tools were made of bone or horn. The women were experts in sewing skins and the men always hunters, as is true to-day.

South of the Seal and Caribou Area a great belt of heavy forest crossed the continent from side to side. Here lived various tribes of Forest Indians. It is a land of lake and

river and of birch-bark canoes. Birch-bark was used also for making cooking vessels. Meat was boiled by dropping hot stones into the water. The most useful animal was the beaver, which furnished soft and warm furs for clothing. It gives a name to the region, the Beaver Area. The women excelled in sewing. The men trapped and



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

INDIAN CAMP, COLVILLE, WASHINGTON. Paul Kane.

hunted. If a moose deer was killed even ten miles from camp the women were sent to skin it and bring in the meat.

Another great natural division of the Indian country lay on the Pacific Coast from Oregon to Alaska. This was the Salmon Area. Countless multitudes of these fish ascended the rivers in the summer season to seek their spawning grounds. Their flesh was hung on limbs, to dry for winter use. The Indians built permanent villages of cedar wood with good roofs, because the rainfall is excessive. The women were experts in braiding big hats and baskets from fibres of the roots of spruce trees. The men were expert

fishermen as well as hunters. They even captured whales, employing great dug-outs of cedar, some of them being large enough for fifty paddlers. The Haida Indians were especially skilful with these crafts.

At the mouths of rivers on the Pacific Coast are found "kitchen middens", where Indian villages had existed for centuries. These middens consist of all the refuse of neolithic housekeeping, shells, bones, broken or abandoned weapons, tools and other articles mixed with filth and earth. They are sometimes twenty or thirty feet thick. Precisely similar middens are found on the shores of the Bay of Biscay in France and on the coasts of Denmark, where our neolithic ancestors dwelt ten thousand years ago. It must have required ages of time to accumulate so great a depth of refuse.

In the ancient poetry of Greece and Rome are tales of men who lived on acorns. This is no myth or legend in America. Acorns were the chief food of the Indians of California. They accumulated great stores of them in granaries elevated above the ground to protect them from small animals. Wild seeds and roots also formed part of their diet. It must have been tribes like these who discovered maize and the best way to cultivate it.

The agriculture of the Indians reached its highest peak in Mexico, Central America and Peru. This was the original Maize Area. Pumpkins and beans were planted in the same hills as the corn. Altogether about forty plants were grown. Chief of these were Lima beans, kidney beans, Chili peppers, tomatoes, potatoes, sweet potatoes and peanuts.

In America, just as in Europe and Asia, the first high civilization arose in the hotter regions. Mexico and Peru were to America what Egypt, Babylon and China were to Europe and Asia. Indian corn played the same rôle as wheat, barley and rice. The agricultural tribes grew rich and the bolder hunting tribes made prey of them. Men and

women were enslaved and condemned to labour in the fields. The conquerors were gradually absorbed by the people they conquered but other conquerors came in the course of time. In Central America there were ruined cities even in the early sixteenth century when the Spaniards first arrived.

Empire of the Incas

In South America the Spaniards found a great empire ruled over by chiefs called Incas. Its capital was Cuzco in

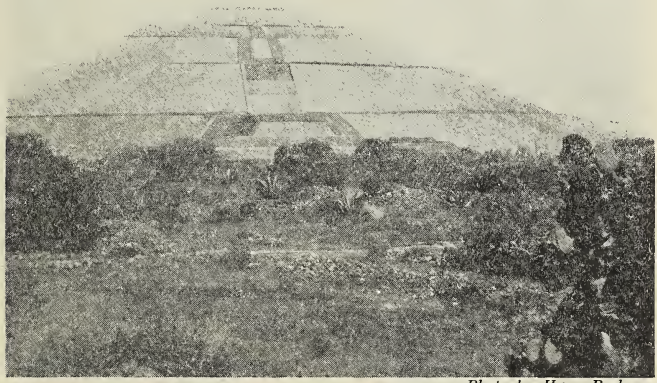


Photo by Hugo Brehme

Pyramid of the Sun, San Juan, Teotihuacan (State of Mexico)

the highlands of Peru, but its authority was acknowledged northward into Ecuador and southward into Bolivia. It was as highly organized as the ancient empires of Asia. Roads were constructed to the remoter parts, and relays of swift runners carried to the farthest provinces the commands of the Inca. Everyone worked, and one third of the produce was for the ruler, one third for the gods and one third for the people. Streams were diverted from their channels to irrigate the corn fields of the hillsides, like the rice fields of China and Japan. There were cities, fortresses,

armouries, warehouses, and factories for making cloth. Everything was done on a large scale. They had cotton and the hair of the alpaca but no wool or linen. For a beast of burden they had the llama, which is native to South America and was domesticated there.

Yet what is equally remarkable, this Empire of the



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology
POTTERY BOWLS, PERU

Incas was the successor of earlier empires. The climate is dry, and tombs have preserved the history of earlier times just as in Egypt. From the burials it can be shown that one conquering race after another had invaded this land, just as in ancient China and Babylon. This fact compels us to assume that what we call the New World was already a very, very old world when the Spaniards first

came to strip the lodges of the Incas of their tinkling gold and lustrous emeralds.

Among the Peruvians there were excellent goldsmiths, but no American Indians had reached the Bronze Age. Copper was known in Mexico, around Lake Superior and among the Eskimos, but its use was negligible. Iron was



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum

MEDICINE MASK DANCE. CLAL-LUM INDIANS AT ESQUIMALT. Paul Kane.

unknown, except a certain iron ore, used for making fire along with a flint.

The Indians were organized into tribes or clans. Sometimes descent was traced from the mother, as among the ancient Etruscans in Italy. Among other tribes it was traced from the father, as was usual in Europe and Asia. They had numerous secret societies for men, often with painful initiations. They had ceremonial dances, especially the Corn Dances, in which the men leaped to the sound of drums and rattles until they dropped from exhaustion. Others took their places. These rites were supposed to make the corn grow. There were similar dances, celebrated

in honour of the Sun, as among the Blackfeet Indians of the northern prairies. The Peruvians also worshipped the Sun, as did also the ancient Egyptians and the Persians. Sun-worship seems to be characteristic of the Stone Ages, though it is widely practised even to this day.

The Indians believed in the existence of the soul and resembled the ancient Romans and other races in thinking that it often took the form of a serpent. When an arrow was broken they said it was "dead", and they often "killed" in this way the weapons they placed in graves. Broken weapons have also been found in neolithic graves in Europe. The idea was that the dead man would have weapons available when he came to life in the spirit world. The Indians, like all neolithic races, also believed in a multitude of spirits residing in all things that live or move, the fire, the wind, the water, wild animals, the thunder, lightning and rain. This stage of religion is called "animism", from the Latin *anima,* 'spirit'. Among the Indians there was also belief in a great supreme spirit, called by some of them Manitou.

The religious beliefs of the Stone Ages have by no means perished. They survive among Indian tribes of both North and South America, among remote races of Asia and even among the hairy Ainus, who live in close contact with the civilized Japanese. In British India there are ten million people still classified as animists, that is, they practise rites more ancient that the simplest Hinduism. South Sea islanders are also animists, where not affected by missionaries. In Africa the practice of fetishism widely prevails; a fetish is a stone or other object possessing magical power; many a black man will plunge fearlessly into a river infested by crocodiles, having faith in a charm or amulet worn around his neck, which he believes to repulse the beasts. The black men also believe in a multitude of evil spirits that frequent the jungle paths, especially beyond the borders of their own country. To frighten these away they wear

sticks in their nostrils, which makes their breathing audible, or they hang charms about their huts.

Even among civilized races the beliefs of the Stone Age survive, for example, the belief in ghosts. Modern man is the child of Stone Age man. The ancient Greeks, most intellectual of all the races of antiquity, were extremely near to the Stone Age. They personalized the winds, for example, Boreas, the North Wind, and Zephyrus, the West Wind. They also gave names to the spirits that haunted the springs, trees and mountains. For example, Daphne was the spirit that lived in the laurel. The ancient Britons had legends of a Talking Oak.

CHAPTER III

THE RACES OF MANKIND

The Story of the American Indian Relatively Simple—Great Size of Natural Food Areas—Complexity of the Eastern Hemisphere—The Mountains of Asia—The Mystery of Human Beginnings—White, Yellow and Brown Men.

THE BROWN MEN.—The Brown Men in Europe—The Brown Men in North Africa and in Asia—The First Boats—Extension of the Brown Race to the Pacific—The Brown Men were Sun-Worshipers.

THE WHITE MEN.—The Fair-Haired Indo-Europeans in Central Europe—Their Character—Their Migrations—Their Descendants in Modern Europe.

THE YELLOW MEN.—Home-Land in North-Eastern Asia—Affinities of the American Indian—Mixture of Races.

From the point of view of World History the story of the American Indian is very simple for various reasons:

(1) He brought the neolithic culture with him to America.

(2) He improved upon it but did not emerge from it.

(3) There was only one race of mankind in America.

(4) The geography of the Western Hemisphere is very simple compared with the geography of the Eastern Hemisphere.

For example, the mountains of North America run north and south and lie near the ocean margins. The great central region is level. The natural food areas are large, few and well marked. The Buffalo Area between the Rockies and the Mississippi was 3,000 miles long and 1,000 miles wide. A great level belt of forest, lake and river extended across the continent from Alaska to the Atlantic and southward to Florida. The Indians could go where they pleased except so far as their enemies hindered them, and these enemies were of their own kind. They traded in pipes, tobacco, skins and weapons, even if they fought at times.

The Eastern Hemisphere is very different. It comprises three continents in one great land-mass, far larger than the

Americas. Central and South Africa, home of the Negro and the bushmen, are cut off from the north by the Sahara Desert. North Africa, therefore, shares its history with Europe and Asia. Europe and Asia are really a single continent, but unlike the Americas, they have their great mountain systems in the interior, lying continually in the way of mankind. The Pyrenees, the Alps, and the Carpathians, it is true, are not sufficient barriers to stop traders, but it is very different in Asia.

Beginning in Asia Minor a long range of mountains under various names extends in a north-easterly direction all the way to Kamchatka on Behring Sea. They divide Russia from China. Another and far higher range extends straight across from the Caspian Sea to the China Sea. This includes the Himalayas, which rise to heights almost 10,000 feet loftier than the highest peaks in America. To make the difference greater, however, the whole surface of the country is elevated. Central Asia is a vast complex of bleak and desert plateaus. Most famous of the plateau countries is Tibet, sometimes called "the roof of the world". South of it lies India, a peninsula, inaccessible by land except through narrow and dangerous mountain passes.

Whether a single race of men in ages inconceivably remote was ever dispersed over this huge mass of land, no one knows. The secret, if evidence exists at all, lies buried in the rocks, in the soil of ancient caves and in the "kitchen middens", where human beings lived for untold centuries by river or seashore. The story has not been written with the pen and must be discovered in the earth, but scientists have never had opportunity to pursue many researches in Asia. Knowledge of this kind is only in its beginnings.

Part of what we know is this, that from the dawn of history there have been white men, yellow men and brown men in Europe and Asia. Draw a transverse line from Spain to Asia Minor, to India and then to the East Indies. Throughout this long belt of land and water all the way

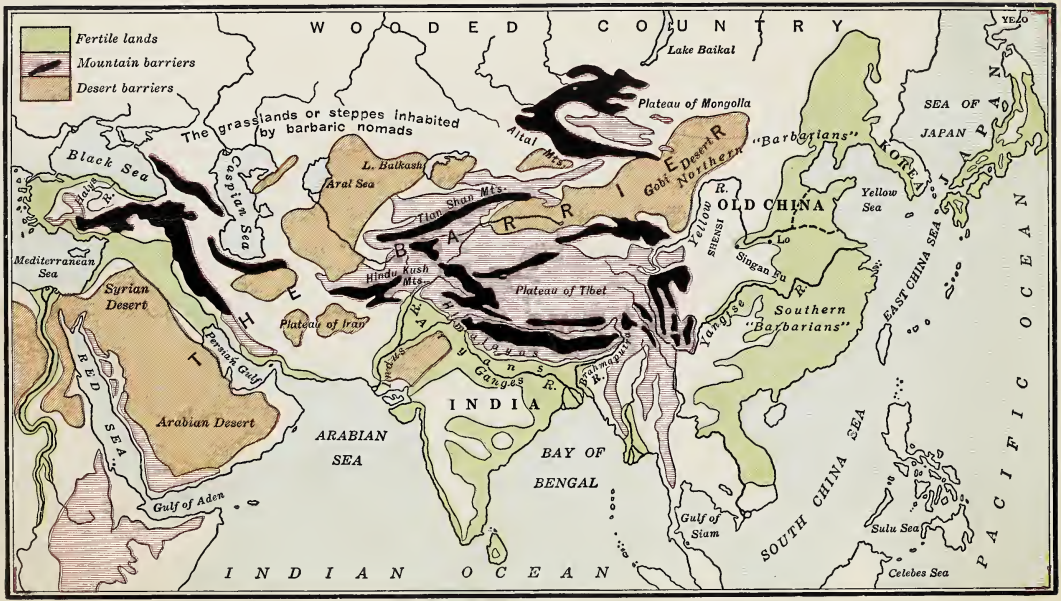
from the Atlantic to the distant Pacific live the brown peoples, long mingled with whiter and darker races. In eastern Asia are the yellow races. In Europe is the home of the white races.

The Brown Men

It was the brown or dark white races of the Mediterranean region who introduced the arts of the New Stone Age into Europe, agriculture, spinning, weaving, and making pottery and polished stone tools. They were of medium size, straight-limbed, active, industrious and enterprising. They made themselves huts of sun-dried bricks or stone, and dwelt in villages. They may have crossed into Europe by the Straits of Gibraltar, or by way of Sicily when it was still part of a land-bridge between Africa and Italy. At any rate, they populated Spain, where they were known as Iberians. They also reached England, Wales and Ireland, where their descendants may be recognized to-day.

To the same race belonged the desert people of North Africa and the industrious folk that made of ancient Egypt the granary of the nations. Other branches of the stock busied themselves in Greece, the Aegean Islands, Crete and Asia Minor. The ancient inhabitants of the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates and also the Dravidians of the south of India may be branches of this stock. The ancestors of the Arab must not be forgotten either, whose home was in the bleak, dusty and windy plateau east of the Red Sea. Long ago it may not have been so barren.

There are good reasons for believing that to this brown race we owe the art of navigation. The first boats were made on the Nile of bundles of reeds tied together and daubed with pitch, bitumen or asphalt. The Egyptians spoke of "weaving a boat" even after they learned to import cedar from Lebanon and build boats of planks. By


Fertile lands
Mountain barriers
Desert barriers
W O O D E D C O U N T R Y
Lake Baikal
Plateau of Mongolia
The grasslands or steppes inhabited by barbaric nomads
Altai Mts.
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
L. Balkash
Aral Sea
Tian Shan Mts.
Gobi Desert
Northern "Barbarians"
YEZO
SEA OF JAPAN
JAPAN
KOREA
Yellow Sea
OLD CHINA
Yellow R.
Sinan Fu
Lo
EAST CHINA SEA
Mediterranean Sea
Syrian Desert
Hindu Kush Mts.
Plateau of Tibet
Plateau of Iran
Southern "Barbarians"
Yangtse R.
Persian Gulf
Himalayas
Indus R.
Ganges R.
Brahmaputra R.
INDIA
RED SEA
Arabian Desert
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
Gulf of Aden
Gulf of Siam
SOUTH CHINA SEA
Sulu Sea
Celebes Sea
I N D I A N O C E A N
P A C I F I C O C E A N

ASIA

this time they had learned to row as well as paddle. They also raised a square sail to go with the wind.

The love of water and of water-sports was strong in the brown men. From India, it is believed, they sailed in huge canoes to Java. Expelled from this island by pugnacious people of a negroid type, they fared on to the islands of the Pacific, even as far as Hawaii, more than half-way to America. It is even believed by some scientists that they reached Peru, where faces of a Polynesian or Pacific Island type are sometimes found. Another reason for this assumption is the following fact: the Polynesians chew betel nuts mixed with lime; the Peruvians chew cocoa leaves mixed with ashes or pulverized shells. Is this a mere coincidence?

Races seem to resemble plants; each has its time of flowering and then another comes to bloom. The bloom of the brown men was in the New Stone Age. It was their diligent hands that introduced the tilled fields and village life into southern Europe and southern Asia. For the first time the land began to take on the trim appearance that always endears it to men's eyes. They also left monuments that are strange to us, the upright stones or dolmens that are found so widely, in England, France, Spain, Africa and farther east. These are thought by some to mark the site of tombs and by others to be connected with the worship of the sun. Sun-worshippers the brown men certainly were, and their reverence for certain sacred stones lasted so long that even Christian preachers were forced to contend with it.

The White Men

While the busy brown men were populating the coast of the Mediterranean and western Europe and setting up their sacred pillars of stone around their villages, a more stalwart and boisterous race was growing strong and numerous in the heart of the continent. These were the

fair-haired and blued-eyed Indo-Europeans. Their homelands were around the Baltic Sea, in the valleys of the Rhine and the Danube, and in the grassy plains north of the Black Sea and around the Caspian. They had learned the use of the horse from the races of Asia to the north-east and the practice of agriculture from the brown men to the south. They did not, however, wander continually with their herds like the nomads in the bleaker north-east, nor settle in villages like the brown men of the Mediterranean. They were semi-nomadic, that is, they would stay in one place long enough to plant wheat and harvest a crop. Then they would move on if the fancy pleased them.

The common people were dependent upon their chiefs. The households of the latter were enormous. Each chief kept his sons and his daughters-in-law and their children and servants under his roof. His authority was absolute, and his home was more like a camp than a house. Scores of men and women shared the meals together. They were great meat-eaters, and cattle, sheep, and swine were daily being slaughtered for the table.

These Indo-Europeans used ox-carts. From time to time many thousands of them would load up their belongings and seek new homes, driving their herds before them. One multitude that went westward perhaps 500 years before Christ is known to history as the Gauls or Celts. They conquered the brown Iberian folk in Spain, France, Ireland and England, and took the land for themselves. Other trains of emigrants long before this time, had gone southward and became known as Romans and Greeks. Still others at an even earlier date had moved toward the Caspian Sea, and occupied the plateau of Iran east of the Tigris and Euphrates; they are known to history as Medes and Persians. A branch of this group penetrated into India, subdued the brown people there and left their impress upon the country for all time. Their manner of life survives to this day in the huge households of Indian princes. Their

language survives under the name of Sanskrit. This eastern branch of the Indo-European race is called Aryan, and by some writers this name is applied to all branches of it, but the name Indo-European is preferable, because it reminds us that the peoples so denoted are to be found all the way from Europe to India.

The Indo-European stock was masterful, intelligent and adaptable. The chiefs were both rulers and priests. They ruled their huge households with a rough and ready justice. They entertained strangers lavishly with bread and meat. They made beer of grain, and used wine after it came to their knowledge. They had no writing, but possessed prodigious memories. At their courts they kept blind bards to recite at their feasts the stories of their heroes. One of the poems recited by these bards is known as the *Iliad* of Homer. It tells of the Trojan War, and contains 15,683 lines. Nevertheless, there were scores of bards who could recite it word for word as had been done for a century or more. The Indo-Europeans were thus the founders of literature as well as of empires. They founded empires in Italy, Greece, Persia and India, and each of these empires left a great literature.

The Indo-European stock was also very prolific. In spite of the multitudes it produced to people many lands from Spain to India, a vigorous core of population still remained at home in Central Europe. These stay-at-homes became the ancestors of English, Scotch, Scandinavians, Germans, Poles, Serbs and Russians. By some they are called the Nordic race, by others the Teutonic. From the remotest times they had fierce neighbours on the east side. These are classed as Turanian. They include the Finns, Magyars, Tartars, Huns and other races of Siberia. Most famous of this group have been the Huns, wild horsemen of the plains, dreaded enemies of Europe on the one side and of China on the other. Their ill-omened name will come to mention only too often in later history.

The Yellow Men

In the bleak highlands of north-eastern Asia was the ancient home of the Mongolian races. They threw off branches just as did the Indo-Europeans of Central Europe, but their earliest drift was eastward towards the Pacific. They seem to have filled up the great wedge of land that we know as the Chinese Empire. The race has unmistakable features, straight black hair, narrow slanting eyes, smallish noses and a yellowish complexion. They are often called the yellow race. To this belong also the Tibetans and the people of Burma and Siam. On the north are the vigorous Manchus. The Koreans and Japanese are similar but come late into history.

The American Indian resembles the Mongol type more than other races of Asia. He may have branched off from it ten or twenty thousand years ago at the dawn of the New Stone Age. Photographs have been made of Tibetans who are hardly to be distinguished from American Indians.

In speaking of all races of the Old World it must always be remembered that they intermarried freely. The fair-haired races mingled with the brown races in Spain, Italy and Greece, and it may be mentioned that the "blue blood" indicated by blue eyes tends to disappear. The Aryans also mingled freely with the native races of India, and have long been almost indistinguishable from them. The Chinese are also a mixed race. Perhaps the American Indians had the purest blood of all, and even among them the features of brown Polynesians from the Pacific Islands seem to be recognizable in South America.

CHAPTER IV

THE GREAT RIVERS OF HISTORY

Drift of Population Towards Warmer Regions—Birth of Arts Perhaps in the Nile Valley—The Tigris, Euphrates, Indus and Ganges —The Yangtse and Hoang-ho.

Natural Food Areas.—Extension of the Rice Area in Asia—Supplementary Foods—The Wheat Area in Asia and Europe—Milk and Meat or Horse and Cattle Area.

The Ox and the Plough.—The Earliest Communities were Villages—The Evil of Usury—The First Nobles.

Priests and Kings.—Where Priests were Powerful—Palaces, Temples and Cities—The Pedigree of Civilization.

Thus far we have been sketching the beginnings of life, the earliest communities of human beings, the content of the first kits of tools, and the appearance of the first agriculture. The significance of the wide-spread Stone Age culture in America has been mentioned. It has been told how the diligent brown men populated the long belt of sub-tropical shore-lands from Spain to the far East Indies; how the domineering fair-haired Indo-Europeans went hither and thither among the brown men, adopting their ways while they settled down to rule them; how the black-haired, yellow-skinned Mongolians claimed the lands of eastern Asia for their own. During several thousands of years there seems to have been a general drift of the races from the bleaker interior lands of the Eastern Hemisphere towards the Mediterranean Sea, the Indian Ocean, the China Seas, and to all the warmer valleys in general.

In the present chapter the influence of the great rivers will be explained, the natural Food Areas will be defined, and the nature of the societies that grew up in the first areas of dense population.

The course of history is determined by the great plains, the mountains and plateaus, and by the rivers, but in the Eastern Hemisphere most of all by the rivers. Perhaps

the greatest river of history is the Nile. It is even claimed by some scientists that all human arts had their origin in its fertile valley; that the first arrow-heads, for example, were made there, and that the art of chipping arrow-heads was passed from hand to hand to all the races of the world.

The Nile, however, has a great rival just across the Arabian desert, the rich valley of the Tigris and Euphrates, called Mesopotamia, mother of empires. East of this lies the great bleak plateau of Iran, home of the ancient Persians, and then comes another of the great rivers of history, the Indus. The upper part of its valley is called the Punjab, "land of five rivers", which holds the key to India and has been the goal of conquerors in all ages. Not far from the sources of the Indus, the Ganges takes its rise and threads its long way among famous cities to the Indian Ocean. This, too, is one of the great rivers of history.

Across the mountains from the lower course of the Ganges rises the Yangtse and flows eastward to the Yellow Sea. North of the Yangtse is the valley of the Hoang-ho, the second of the great rivers of China. These two streams are less imposing than the Mississippi and the Amazon, but they have meant infinitely more to mankind. Once for a brief fifty years the Mississippi carried the commerce of the surrounding States, but the great rivers of China have carried its commerce for six thousand years or more. They still carry it. Chinese civilization began on their banks. Its home is still in the same place.

Natural Food Areas

In America we are familiar with great natural food areas, such as the Buffalo Area, the Salmon Area, and so on. If we should try to discern such divisions in prehistoric Europe and Asia, the East Indies would be the original Rice Area. From the islands the cultivation of rice spread along the coasts long, long ago to India on the west and to China on the north, wherever the overflowing rivers create rich,

wet "paddy fields". This extension of the Rice Area may be compared to the extension of the Maize Area in both North and South America.

Along with the cultivation of rice went plants such as the soy bean, because rice is not a complete food for human beings. Meat would supply the deficient protein but beans were used instead, because the eastern peoples were not meat-eaters. The Rice Area is not a Bread Area, because rice is boiled and not made into flour and dough. In the Far East boiled rice has always been, and still is, the staff of life. To this Area also belong various ways of fermenting food. Soy beans, for example, are strong diet, and become more digestible and tasty also if allowed to ferment. Fermented rice produces either wine or beer, such as the *sake* of Japan.

An original Wheat Area may also be discovered in prehistoric times. It may have been in the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates or in the valley of the Nile. Certain it is that both Mesopotamia and Egypt regarded bread as the staff of life. The "corn" which the sons of Jacob went down to buy from their brother Joseph was, of course, wheat, but wheat had been grown in Egypt thousands of years earlier. From Egypt the Wheat Area was extended by the brown peoples over North Africa, most of Europe, and the nearer parts of Asia. The Wheat Area was also a Bread Area, because the wheat was ground between stones and made into dough before baking.

We may also discover in Europe and Asia an original Meat and Milk Area. This may be located in the great plains of European and Asiatic Russia, which correspond to the prairies of America. This was also the original Horse and Cattle Area. Greek historians tell us of the Scythians in this region who used the milk of horses rather than that of cows, just as the Mongols do to this day. From this Area the use of milk and meat from domestic herds spread westward among the stalwart Indo-European or

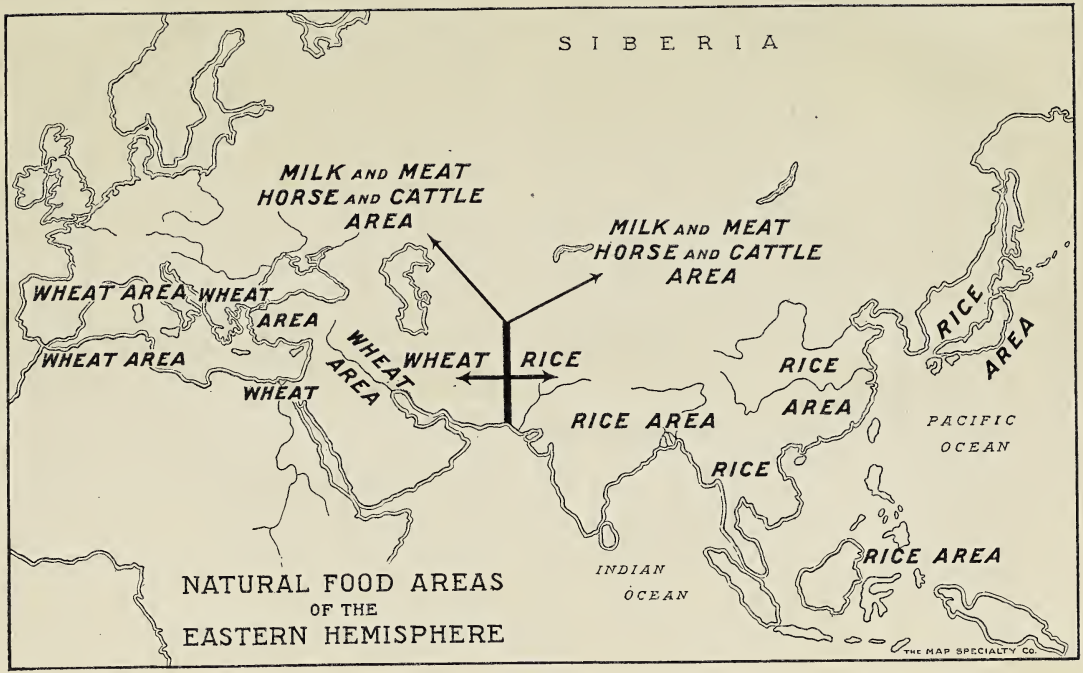
Aryan peoples of Central Europe. They drove cattle and oxen with them in all their conquests, whether into Italy, Greece, Persia or India. The goat also spread westward from Asia. It furnished milk throughout the Mediterranean lands, where pasture is not so abundant. Goat's milk was, and still is, more often used in the form of a fresh cheese made daily. The American Indian used no milk and to this day despises it. This prejudice probably existed at one time among all neolithic peoples.

The Ox and the Plough

The ancient Egyptians adopted the ox and the plough thousands of years before they had knowledge of horses and camels. The use of the ox enabled them to add the plough to the hoe in the cultivation of wheat. The first plough was simply a large hoe, that is, the limb of a tree with a branch trimmed short. It did not turn the soil in a furrow. It had no mould-board. The next invention was a plough of two pieces of wood lashed together with a rope. The rope lashing was replaced by a band of bronze or iron when the age of metals arrived, which was after 3000 B.C.

It was a village civilization that grew up in all the great river valleys of prehistoric times. Men and women both laboured. In Egypt and Mesopotamia they built themselves huts of sun-dried bricks with flat roofs, because there was no rain. In India and the East they thatched their roofs with reeds or grass to drain off the water. Everywhere, however, the village was the unit, just as it was among the American Indians wherever they grew maize. The huts were clustered together.

In each village there would be one man more feared or respected than the rest. He was the chief. The chief was the first nobleman. If he was greedy, he would loan something to his poorer neighbour, and take his land from him if he failed to pay it back. It is told in the Bible how in time of famine Joseph got all the oxen and all the land into his


SIBERIA
MILK AND MEAT HORSE AND CATTLE AREA
MILK AND MEAT HORSE AND CATTLE AREA
WHEAT AREA
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RICE AREA
PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
NATURAL FOOD AREAS
OF THE
EASTERN HEMISPHERE
THE MAP SPECIALTY CO.

possession through selling wheat to the people on credit (Genesis xlvii, 13-26). This is the history of many a land in the far distant past. The land gradually came into the possession of the stronger and all the rest worked for them as servants. The nobles became a power.

Priests and Kings

The nobles, however, did not have things entirely their own way. Each village had its protecting gods. These gods had their own houses or temples, and the temples had priests. What is more important, the gods had their own lands. The priests, therefore, enjoyed not only the income from fees for warding off sickness, drought and famine, but also the income from the temple fields. The consequence was that the priests were very influential. Even Joseph, who ordained that a fifth part of all the crops of Egypt should belong to the Pharaoh, was not strong enough to make this apply to the lands of the priests (Genesis xlvii, 26).

In ancient times priests were strong only in countries like Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and China, where men had settled down to live on the land in villages. Among the Semites of the desert each man set up his own altar, slew his own lamb, and uttered his own prayer. No one at any time stood between him and God. Neither was there a separate priestly class among the lordly Indo-Europeans of the forest-lands and grass-lands of Central Europe and Asia. The head of each household would slay a sheep and inspect its vital organs to ascertain if the gods approved of his going to war; he was as much a priest as anyone in the community. Among the Romans, who belonged to this stock, there were public priests, but any citizen might be appointed to the office; Julius Caesar bore the title of Pontifex Maximus or Chief Priest during all his military campaigns. As genuine examples of special priestly castes may be mentioned the Levites among the Jews and the Brahmans of India.

It was also in the regions of the great rivers and intensive agriculture that the first cities came into being, such as Memphis in Egypt and Ur in Mesopotamia. These grew up often where caravan routes touched the rivers, as at Babylon. The nucleus of the early cities was a royal palace, and the early kings were kings only of cities and the lands that the citizens owned. The city was a city-state and the kingdom was a city-state. The first cities were also temple-cities, because every king built temples as well as palaces. An example of a temple-city is Jerusalem, although it was three or four thousand years later than the first temple-cities of Mesopotamia. Many of the early kings were priest-kings, and not only led the people in time of war but also sacrificed and prayed for them in time of peace. The drift was nevertheless towards the separation of priestly duties from the kingship.

To-day the deserts of Mesopotamia are dotted with mounds of earth. These are the remains of the first cities of men, built of sun-dried bricks, which crumbled to dust. Concealed beneath are the ruins of palaces, temples, and houses. Beneath the floors are the tombs of kings. When carefully uncovered these remains spell out for us the beginnings of civilization. The pedigree of human society is there, the first intensive agriculture, village life, city life, nobles, priests and kings. The first empires were also located there, when masterful conquerors came in from the mountains and deserts and ruled the diligent merchants and tillers of the soil. There were very ancient cities in India and China also, but their story remains almost undeciphered. Only in Mesopotamia and in Egypt have the chapters of this book of history been pieced together.

PART II

ANCIENT HISTORY

CHAPTER V

ANCIENT EMPIRES OF THE NEAR EAST

The Starting Point of Ancient History—Western Culture Encircles the Globe—Definition of the Near East—The Sumerians—Cuneiform Writing—Art and Architecture—List of Ancient Empires—Definition of Kingdom and Empire.

THE AKKADIAN EMPIRE.
THE BABYLONIAN EMPIRE.
THE EGYPTIAN EMPIRE.
THE HITTITE EMPIRE.
THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.
THE CHALDEAN EMPIRE.
THE JEWS OR HEBREWS.

The starting point of Ancient History is located in the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers, often called Mesopotamia. This was one of the fertile regions where agriculture first flourished, where cities came into being and grew wealthy, where men first made laws for themselves, and where conquering races came in from the surrounding mountains and deserts and founded the first empires.

Empires were founded also in India and China, but these empires remained for the most part self-contained. In Mesopotamia, on the other hand, empires succeeded to empires, expanding westward as the centuries passed, until at last the Roman Empire embraced all the lands surrounding the Mediterranean Sea, including the Atlantic coast of Europe and the island of Britain. Out of the Roman Empire the chief nations of modern Europe were formed, and they in turn have transplanted their civilization to the two Americas, and through their mastery of the seas have introduced it into India, China and Japan. Thus, what we call western culture has made in the last 6,000 years the circuit of the globe.

The valley of the Two Rivers is fenced off on the east by a lofty plateau and by still higher mountains beyond, but on the west side a fertile or semi-fertile crescent of land

follows the margin of the desert northward and westward to Syria, Palestine and Egypt. Following this fertile crescent, the most illustrious of all caravan routes linked together the two great river civilizations of ancient times, Babylon and Egypt. Great cities of immemorial fame were situated close to it, Babylon, Damascus, Samaria, Jericho, Jerusalem, Memphis, and scores of others. For want of a better name, this fertile loop of land and all the countries that shared its trade and traffic will be called the Near East, which includes Arabia, Palestine, Syria, Asia Minor, Armenia, Persia and Mesopotamia.

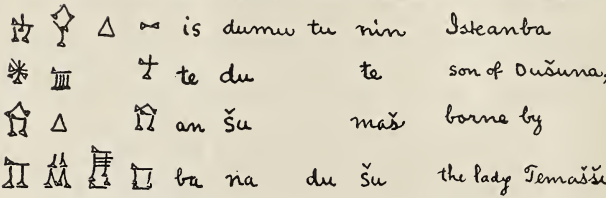
The word Mesopotamia means "the land between the Two Rivers", and more particularly the small plain of Shinar, embraced within two loops of the rivers between modern Bagdad and the Persian Gulf. Though very fertile, it is small, about the size of Wales or the State of New Jersey or the Province of Prince Edward Island in Canada. The men who built the first cities there were called Sumerians. On the monuments they are represented with long, rough, woollen skirts, in marked contrast to the slender Egyptians with their linen loin-cloths. It is manifest from their appearance and also from their language, which is known, that they were not akin to the Jews or other Semites. Their origin is a mystery.

In point of intelligence they were hardly inferior to the Egyptians. The land produced abundant crops of wheat, barley and dates, which were carried far up the river valley by trains of donkeys. To each sack or bale of merchandise was attached a bill in the form of a clay tablet with the account impressed upon it. It is a testimony to the extent of Sumerian trade that this style of writing became known as far as the Hittite capital (p. 85) in Asia Minor, as well as in Egypt. Scholars have given it the name cuneiform (Latin *cuneus*, 'wedge'), because each mark is in the form of a wedge. The letter, written on clay, was allowed to dry and was then covered with moist clay to serve as an

envelope. Tens of thousands of these tablets have been found in the ruins of eastern cities. They inform us of laws, wars, conquests, kings, business and marriage contracts, and a multitude of other details. Letters were signed with the seal of the writer, which he carried in the



Courtesy of the Royal Ontario Museum and S. A. B. Mercer



BABYLONIAN CYLINDER SEAL, IMPRESSION OF SAME, AND TRANSLATION. THIS WAS THE MERCHANT'S SIGNATURE

shape of a little roller. This was run over the moist clay and really printed a signature.

The Sumerians used silver in their dealings and must have understood mining. The metal was not coined, but weighed, and the unit was the shekel, of which sixty made a *mina* or pound. There were goldsmiths among them, who made beautiful jewellery. The art of cutting hard stones was developed in connection with the seals, of which every citizen of consequence was in need.

They built terraced or tower-like buildings for their gods, alongside of which stood the true temples, all con-



ASSYRIAN AND BABYLONIAN EMPIRES

structed of sun-dried bricks, like the houses. The palm tree was sacred and became in their religion and art "the tree of life". This symbol was adopted by their neighbours, as was also the figure of an eagle with outspread wings, the so-called "eagle of Lagash" from one of their cities. The kings were also priests, and ruled broad temple lands along with the people of the realm.

This little kingdom of Sumer, nestling in the level plain between the Two Rivers among the groves of date-palms, was long able to defend itself against the raiding tribes of the desert. The citizens were accustomed to arm themselves with leather helmets, long shields and spears, and march out in regular ranks to the defence of their borders. At length, however, they were overcome by a tribe of desert bowmen called Akkadians, men of the Semitic race. This conquest marked the foundation of the first of that long series of empires which succeeded one another in the Near East and the Mediterranean lands. The names and dates, where known, of these empires were as follows:

The Akkadian Empire, at its height under Sargon, 2750 B.C.

The Babylonian Empire, at its height under Hammurapi, 2100 B.C.

The Egyptian Empire, at its height under Thutmose III, 1450 B.C.

The Hittite Empire, 1450-1200 B.C.

The Assyrian Empire, 750-612 B.C.

The Chaldean Empire, 612-539 B.C.

The Persian Empire, 550-331 B.C.

Alexander's Empire, 331-197 B.C.

The Roman Empire, 27 B.C.-476 A.D., Rome; 330-1453 A.D., Constantinople.

The difference between a king and an emperor may be explained as follows: A king is ruler only of his own people; if he rules other nations or races, he is an emperor. For example, George V is King in England and Scotland, but he

is Emperor of India. Similarly, before the Great War, William Hohenzollern was King in Prussia but German Emperor; among his own Prussians he was king, but in other German States he was Emperor. So in ancient Sumeria there were several tidy little kingdoms such as Kish, Adab, Lagash, Larsa and Ur. Each had its own king but these rulers were all Sumerians. When the great Akkadian war-lord, Sargon, about 2625 B.C., became master of them, he styled himself King of Akkad and Sumer, but we should call him Emperor, because he ruled over states that were foreign to him. To this title he won additional claim because he conquered all the tribes and cities of the fertile crescent as far as the Mediterranean. He founded the first empire in Mesopotamia.

The Akkadian Empire

Like all ancient kings of the desert, Sargon was a raider. When the winter rains had refreshed the strength of man and beast, he would despatch messengers to all the cities of the plain and to the tribes of the desert to send their quotas of fighting men. With the army so mustered he would set out to plunder his neighbours, following the caravan routes. Each year he would make a fresh raid, and each year he would go farther than before, until at last he had reached the limit of his raiding distance. He did not organize his empire into provinces and leave governors to collect the tribute; he went in person year after year to take by force the food, clothing, gold, silver and precious things that he desired. He then returned home to enjoy his plunder and build palaces and temples. Such was the mighty Sargon who lived from 2630 to 2575 B.C.

The Babylonian Empire

In the course of time other desert tribes learned the arts of war and peace from their Akkadian masters, and at the same time the enervating life of an oriental palace sapped the vigour of the Sargonid princes. These changes

bore fruit when a great man of the tribe of the Amorites named Hammurapi came to the fore about 2100 B.C. He was a greater man even than Sargon, and he raised a small village called Babylon to a supreme place in the land of the Two Rivers. Like Sargon, he raided and conquered the caravan cities as far as the Mediterranean, but he was far more of a true emperor. He was a capable organizer.

We may picture him in the sumptuous throne room in his mud palace surrounded by shaven Sumerian secretaries, dictating letters to his governors, judging disputes between landlords or merchants, giving orders to clear the river channels for boats, or urging the tax-gatherers to collect the arrears of tribute. He knew the value of commerce. His archers protected the caravan routes against robbers, so that the slow-moving trains of donkeys with their bales and sacks could safely reach the caravan towns far up the rivers and far west to Syria and Palestine. It was in this way that Sumerian clay tablets, Sumerian weights, and Sumerian shekels of silver became familiar to all races for hundreds of miles up the rivers and westward to the Mediterranean.

The Egyptian Empire

Hammurapi's body had been snugly resting under the palace floor for a couple of centuries when it came the turn of his people to be conquered by a far-distant power, the kings of Egypt, who for some four centuries played the rôle of emperors. From Thebes or Memphis on the Nile it is a long, long journey around the margin of the desert to the land of the Two Rivers. The caravan route followed the coast-line into the land of the Canaanites, and next into the land of the busy Arameans, whose great caravan city was Damascus, and so across the desert to Babylon. Egyptian armies could hardly have accomplished so long a march unless the horse and the war-chariot had been added to the resources of warfare. In the years following 1600 B.C.

the Egyptians came again and again, until, under the great king, Thutmose III, the empire once ruled over by the mighty Sargon and Hammurapi was sending its tribute to the cities of the Nile.

The great days of Egypt were over by 1200 B.C., and great empires for a time were lacking. Along the fertile crescent of the desert smaller kingdoms flourished. The Kingdom of Israel, with its new capital of Jerusalem, was becoming stronger. The Phoenician trading cities of Tyre and Sidon were fattening upon the commerce of the Mediterranean. Damascus grew into a powerful city, rich in trade and amply able to defend itself. The old cities of the Two Rivers were also the seats of flourishing little kingdoms.

The Hittite Empire

It was during this interval that momentous changes took place in the arts of both war and peace. The age of iron began in industry and the use of cavalry in warfare. These innovations were due to the rise of a new power in the far-distant interior of Asia Minor, the Hittite kingdom. Its capital was near the Halys River, south of the centre of the Black Sea. The Hittites were not Semites, and the dominant element among them belonged to the virile Indo-European family of white races from Central Europe. They possessed iron mines, and they went out to battle with steel swords. They founded an empire in Asia Minor which extended into Syria and weakened the power of Egypt, and, for a time, threatened to conquer the land of the Two Rivers. In this it failed, but the great Hittite stronghold of Carchemish was built on the Euphrates at the margin of the desert. Nevertheless, if the Hittites never permanently conquered, their pupils, the Assyrians, did so.

The Assyrian Empire

The home-land of the Assyrians was far up the valley of the Tigris, on the east bank. They received their name,

Assyrians, from their capital, Assur. They were Semites who had settled down to farm the rich valleys on the margin of the plateau of Iran. Through many centuries the caravans of the Sumerians had brought to them the wares of the rich cities of Shinar. It was, however, the lessons they learned from the Hittites that made them terrible. They had learned the use of steel and the horse for riding. They also transformed the chariot into a more deadly weapon by adding projecting scythes of steel to the axles. It may be imagined what terror and havoc would have been caused among foot-soldiers when they saw their comrades mowed down by those pitiless blades, to be followed by galloping horsemen with spear and sword. For besieging walled cities the Assyrians introduced the battering ram, a great swinging log of heavy wood with a metal head. Even against stone it was a formidable tool, and against ramparts of sun-dried brick it was irresistible. Multitudes of archers would sweep the defenders from the walls to permit of its operation.

The men of the eastern races wrote poor histories but they possessed long memories. The first great king of Assyria called himself Sargon II, after the great Akkadian conqueror who had been dead two thousand years. He was an usurper, seizing the throne about 722 B.C. Already, by that date, the Assyrian army was the swiftest body of fighting men that the world had ever known. It had been trained by conflicts with Amorites and Hittites. Damascus had fallen in 732 B.C. and every time that the Assyrians sallied forth to war they carried their attacks further. Egypt was finally subdued about 700 B.C.

The Assyrian Empire was better organized than its predecessors. Its rulers had great faith in speed. They developed a system of couriers who carried the despatches to and from the provinces with a rapidity never known before. The use of horses and chariots necessitated the development of roads. The kings were also great builders.

Sargon's son, Sennacherib, a greater man than his father, built the new capital called Nineveh, situated north of the old capital, Assur. Its walls extended two and a half miles along the Tigris bank. To erect it he carried away thousands of skilled workmen from distant provinces, artists,



Courtesy Oriental Institute of Chicago

STONE HUMAN-HEADED BULL. FROM GATEWAY OF PALACE OF SARGON II, EIGHTH CENTURY, B.C. THESE WINGED BULLS ARE THE CHERUBS OF THE OLD TESTAMENT

goldsmiths, silversmiths, brick-makers, stone-masons, carpenters, and metal-workers.

Carrying off skilled workmen by force was a slight cruelty compared to other deeds of the Assyrians. Captives possessing no skill, and hence useless, were massacred. Captured foes of noble birth were impaled on stakes. Captive kings were compelled to march with the severed heads

of their friends dangling about their necks. No torture was too hideous for their imaginations. Nevertheless, they wore out their own man power in ceaseless wars, and the empire lasted only from 750 to 612 B.C.

The Chaldean Empire

Just as the Assyrian Empire was conceived as a revival of the empire of Sargon, so the last ancient empire of the Semites was regarded as a revival of the splendour of Hammurapi. It was the short-lived Chaldean Empire, 612-539 B.C. During this brief interval the city of Babylon, which Sennacherib had utterly destroyed, was rebuilt on a scale of magnificence that has never been forgotten. Its outstanding features were its stupendous walls of brick, its Ishtar Gate, a handsome processional street, and the celebrated Hanging Gardens. The latter consisted of a gigantic terraced pyramid with exquisite gardens on every terrace, from which King Nebuchadnezzar could look down upon his monumental capital and the reaches of the historic river. It was this same Nebuchadnezzar who destroyed Jerusalem (586 B.C.) and carried away all the skilled workmen and educated people of the Jews to labour in his new Babylon.

The Chaldeans made only one addition to the culture of the Near East, the knowledge of the stars. They believed that the lives of men and nations were determined by the movements of the sun, the moon, the planets and other heavenly bodies. This was their method of foretelling the future. Each day, they also thought, was dominated by the sun, the moon, or one of the planets; hence we have Sunday, Monday (Moon-day) and so on. Friday is Fria's day; she was German goddess of love, equated with the Roman Venus, and she, in turn, with Babylonian Ishtar.

The Chaldean Empire was the last achievement of the Semitic races in ancient times. It was followed by the Persian Empire, but the story of this must be postponed until the history of Egypt and the Greeks has been told. New

ideas of government and conduct, quite alien to the despotisms of the Near East, were growing up in the islands of the sea. Greek civilization ended in the Empire of Alexander the Great, who conquered the Persians. Alexander's Empire was in turn succeeded by the Roman Empire, the last of the long series of empires in the Mediterranean and the Near East.

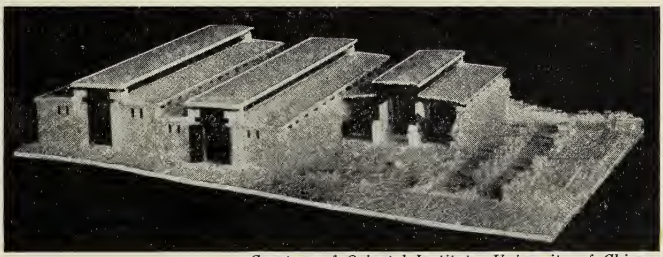
The Jews or Hebrews

It has been pointed out how the rivalry of Egyptians and Hittites was followed by a temporary decline of Empires in the Near East. In the interval smaller kingdoms rose and flourished. Mention of these might be omitted from a brief sketch of World History were it not for the Jewish kingdom, which has affected the story of mankind more profoundly than any empire. Jerusalem was a temple-city, like Babylon, Ur and many another in Mesopotamia. It was surrounded by smaller towns, which served for fortresses and store-houses; it possessed a small territory of pastures, grain-fields, vineyards and orchards. The kingdom was at its greatest extent and prosperity under Solomon (974-937 B.C.); it embraced twelve tribes. After his death the ten tribes to the north became independent, but the smaller part, the kingdom of Judah, alone was destined to play a great rôle in after time.

The legacy of Judah is twofold: first, the books of the Old Testament are at the same time our oldest historical writings, and they embrace the only history of any race that is composed from the point of view of morality and righteousness; second, the Jews gave to the world one of its three great religions, Christianity.

The Jews had come in from the desert beyond the Jordan, and had spent a period of captivity in Egypt. The land of their choice was Canaan, a hilly, elevated country lying between the Arabian Desert and Philistia (map p. 65). To the north lay the land of the Arameans, whose chief city

was Damascus; this was one of the most famous caravan cities of all time, situated on the main route between Egypt and Babylon. West of Damascus was Phoenicia, with Tyre and Sidon for its chief cities. South of Phoenicia was Philistia or Palestine, inhabited by the Philistines, who were not Semites but had come across the sea, perhaps from Asia Minor by way of Crete; they resembled the Greeks. The Canaanites, whose chief city was Jericho,



Courtesy of Oriental Institute, University of Chicago

MODEL OF THE STABLES OF SOLOMON.
(I Kings ix:15-19; II Chron. i:14-17)

were conquered by the Jews, but not easily. They were desert people who had long since given up their sheep-skin garments and adopted the ways of agricultural folks. They had grain-fields, orchards and vineyards, and their god, Baal, was a deity of increase for both crops and herds. The temptation of the Jewish people to intermarry with the Canaanites and worship their gods evoked the noblest kind of spiritual protest from the prophets.

Just as the Jewish kingdom flourished while strong empires were lacking, so it fell when vigorous empires arose once more. The Assyrians, working their way steadily westward, captured Damascus in 732 B.C. It was 612 when the turn of Jerusalem came. Only a generation passed before a second and worse calamity occurred, the conquest by Nebuchadnezzar; in 586 B.C. he carried away

the educated classes and the skilled artisans to captivity in Babylon. This was an interval of great progress in religious thought. The return to Jerusalem took place after Cyrus the Great of Persia captured Babylon in 539 B.C. Thereafter the head of the nation was the high priest. The city survived as the Jewish capital until captured by the Romans in 70 A.D.

The religion of the Jews, so far as contained in the Old Testament, is called Judaism. As interpreted anew by the teachings of Jesus and his Apostles, it is Christianity. Judaism survives as the faith of orthodox Jews in almost every country of the world. Christianity is the faith of three continents out of five, and is strongly represented in the other two. This is an ample legacy to the modern world from a small and defeated race of ancient times.

CHAPTER VI

THE LAND OF EGYPT

Central Situation of Egypt—The Natives of African Origin—A Natural Food Area—The Nile and Irrigation—Pharaohs, Palaces and Cities—The Pyramids of Kings—The Rock-Cut Tombs of Noblemen—Thutmose III—Horses and Chariots—Later History of Egypt—Mummies—Tomb of Tutankhamen—The Life after Death—Gods of the Egyptians.

> Homage to thee, O Hapi (Nile), thou appearest in this land, and thou comest in peace to make Egypt to live. Thou waterest the fields which Ra hath created, thou givest life unto all animals, and as thou descendest on thy way from heaven thou makest the land to drink without ceasing. Thou art the friend of bread and drink, thou givest strength to the grain and makest it to increase, and thou fillest every place of work with work. Thou art the creator of barley, and thou makest the temples to endure for millions of years. Thou art the lord of the poor and needy. If thou wert overthrown in the heavens, the gods would fall upon their faces and men would perish. When thou appearest on the earth, shouts of joy rise up and all the people are glad; every man of might receiveth food and every tooth is provided with meat. Thou fillest the storehouses; thou makest the granaries to overflow. Thou makest herbs and grain to grow that the desires of all may be satisfied, and thou art not impoverished thereby. Thou makest thy strength to be a shield for man. (Part of ancient Hymn to the Nile).

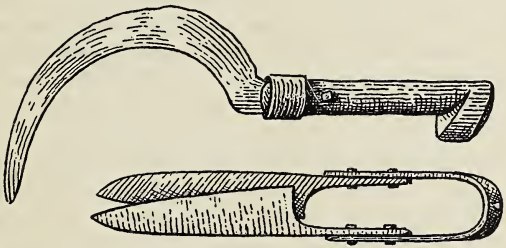
At the same time that great warlike empires were growing up in the fertile valley of the Tigris and Euphrates a far more peaceful civilization was developing in the rich valley of the Nile in Egypt. Mesopotamia lay on the extreme eastern margin of the vast Wheat and Bread Area that extended westward along the shores of the Mediterranean Sea to Spain and Britain. Egypt was more centrally situated. As the Nile River discharges its waters into the sea through many mouths, so the arts and crafts of Egypt were carried eastward, northward and westward to the neighbouring parts of Asia and to the islands of the sea. It had contacts with the rival empires of Mesopotamia, of Asia Minor, and also with the sea kings of Crete and the Aegean Sea. It was the foremost school of the Ancient World.

Nevertheless, although its history belongs with that of Asia and Europe, its native races belonged to Africa. They were slender brown men but quite different from the Semites who founded kingdoms and empires along the Tigris and Euphrates. They were Hamites, or what the Bible calls sons of Ham. They did not belong, however, with those other sons of Ham, the Negroes, who occupied the heart of Africa under the equator. It was their own tradition that they came from the land of Punt, which lay south of Egypt proper and eastward toward the Red Sea. As labourers in the fields they were unsurpassed for diligence and obedience, but they were not warlike. When the time came for kings of Egypt to go to war it became the custom to enlist the services of fighting tribes who lived farther up the river in the Sudan, or in later times, to hire Greeks or other mercenary soldiers from the islands of the sea.

Human beings were living in the valley of the Nile tens of thousands of years ago. Where the sluggish waters of the river made their way among the swamps, especially in the triangular region known as the Delta (from the Greek letter Δ), was of old one of those Natural Food Areas, which have given birth to the first civilizations in diverse parts of the earth. Edible game birds abounded in the weedy lagoons, and the land abounded in the beasts that prey upon them. In remote times the hippopotamus and the rhinoceros were also found there, though, as the hunters increased, they retreated up the Nile. More important was the abundance of wild cattle, some of which were domesticated while men were still living in the Ages of Stone. Long before the dawn of history, cattle had been subdued to draw the plough, and the fields were producing wheat, barley and millet. Every prosperous household had its garden of vegetables, including onions, cucumbers, lentils, beans, peas, radishes, melons, pumpkins, leeks, garlic, and others of the nature of turnips, carrots and spinach. Fruits included olives, figs, dates, mulberries and grapes. In few regions of

the world was an equal variety of food available, whether flesh or vegetable.

This abundance of food, as the population increased, could only be maintained by the control of the floods, which was well understood even in the Ages of Stone. The water is lowest in May and rises gradually until October, when it begins to fall again. To conserve the moisture, and to extend the fields as far as possible, it was necessary to dig an



Sickle and Shears from Egypt, as Used from Ancient Times until 19th Century

elaborate system of canals, just as in Mesopotamia. This extension of the fields had its dangers, because the regular rise of from 21 to 28 feet did not always occur, and then famine resulted. Rather curiously, this failure, if it occurred, sometimes repeated itself for seven years, as is recorded in the story of Joseph (Genesis xli), and again in the years 1066 to 1072 A.D. Such calamities, however, seem to have been rare, and Egypt was normally a land of plenty with a surplus of wheat to sell in Palestine and Syria, and even as far as Babylon.

Just as in Mesopotamia, the arts of trade and agriculture flourished first in the lower reaches of the river, and gradually crept upstream. The first city was Memphis, situated on the west bank just above the Delta, across from the modern Cairo. It grew up around the palace of the king or Pharaoh. The word Pharaoh means "great house"

and the king was "the man who lived in the great house". This palace, fronting on the river, would be built of sun-dried bricks and surrounded by a high wall of the same material. The nobleman, arriving by boat to call upon his lord, would mount a flight of steps to a level esplanade shaded by a row of acacia trees. Entrance was made through an imposing gateway in the base of a tower. Soldiers with maces and daggers stood on guard.

The interior was a veritable Garden of Eden. To right and left were ponds bordered by fruit trees and flowers. Rows of shade trees parallel to the long walls invited to strolling or loitering in the cool of the day. The palace stood in the rear; a shady arbour of grape-vines led up to the entrance. The building itself was of two or three stories and the flat roof was spread with awnings of bright coloured cloth. In the darkened interior the Pharaoh himself would be seated upon his throne surrounded by his scribes. The latter, alert, with shaven heads, stood with tablet and pen in hand, ready to take letters and despatches at his dictation. The women were not secluded as in modern Egypt, and princesses were at liberty to loiter about the garden and to descend to the river, as related of Pharaoh's daughter in the story of Moses (Exodus ii).

The houses of the nobles differed only in size and magnificence. They were located along the river. It was around the palace of the king, however, that the city grew up. There were barracks for soldiers, stables for cattle, and vast storehouses for grain, wine, beer, and olive-oil. The number of servants was legion, and quarters were necessary for them. In addition to these the Pharaoh had the right to call upon all the villages to send quotas of labourers for digging or cleaning canals or for other public works. It is said that the labour of 100,000 men was required for twenty years to build the great pyramid, the tomb of Cheops. This was great hardship for the poor, to be required to leave their own plots and gardens to labour for the king or the

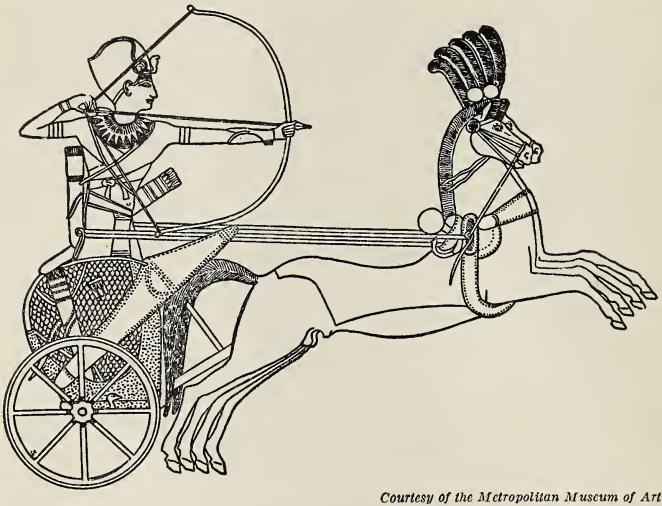
nobles for three months of every year. Hundreds of them, working under foremen armed with whips, would be forced to pull long ropes, moving huge stones weighing tons, perhaps a few inches at a time. Tens of thousands of them worked month after month under the burning sun with poor tools in distant quarries. Their food was chiefly onions and radishes.

It was the Pharaohs of Memphis who built the pyramids, chiefly in the period between 3000 and 2500 B.C. Pyramids, however, although they were classed among the wonders of the world, have little place in World History. They appear to poor advantage when compared with the useful roads, bridges and aqueducts of the ancient Romans, or the great engineering works of modern times. In order that selfish monarchs might conceal their bodies and treasures safe from discovery and robbery until the day of the resurrection, hundreds of thousands of ill-fed peasants were forced to contribute their unrequited toil and many of them their lives. Human life was very cheap.

As the modern tourist wends his way up the river in the comfort of a modern steamboat, the miles and miles of pyramids on the west bank pass out of view and, when distant some two hundred miles above Cairo, a series of tombs excavated in the solid rock of the cliffs on the east bank begins to claim the attention. These rock-cut chambers once contained the remains of rich noblemen who were supreme in the land from 2500 to 1800 B.C. During this age the noblemen were more powerful than the Pharaohs. They also treated the peasants more mercifully, and an inscription carved upon one tomb records such words as these: "There was no widow whom I oppressed; there was no peasant whom I evicted; there was no shepherd whom I expelled; there was none hungry in my time." This was also an age of commerce, and a canal was dug from the Red Sea to the Nile near the Delta.

The peak of Egyptian power was reached after 1600 B.C.,

when new Pharaohs entered into competition with conquerors of Mesopotamian lands and essayed to found an empire. The greatest of the imperial Pharaohs was Thutmose III, who reigned from 1479 to 1447 B.C. It is manifest that his empire was of the usual raiding type. He led no fewer than seventeen expeditions into Palestine and Syria,



Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art

AN EGYPTIAN WAR CHARIOT

From a picture on the chariot of Thutmose IV, found in his tomb. The Pharaoh standing in his chariot is shooting an arrow and at the same time he is guiding his two horses by reins tied around his body. Thutmose IV lived in the 15th century B.C.

and even extended his dominions beyond those countries to the Euphrates. The Assyrians of the upper Tigris and also the Hittite kings of Asia Minor acknowledged his superiority. Upon his death the usual result followed; the tribute which had been paid because of fear of his armies was refused, and his successors were compelled to inspire fresh fear by new invasions.



THE EGYPTIAN EMPIRE

One secret of the sudden rise of this Egyptian Empire was the development of the horse and chariot, a new weapon of warfare. The horse comes late into history. The armies of previous war-lords travelled on foot. The donkey was the universal beast of burden from Egypt to Mesopotamia. Camels were long confined to Arabia and Central Asia. The ox was used for ploughing and drawing carts.

One breed of horses was native to the deserts of northern Asia, where the hardy, slant-eyed Mongols lived, but this horse was small, shaggy, mean and ugly, and it carried its head low and its tail close to its body. Another breed was native to the deserts of Africa, and this horse was sleek and docile but spirited, and it carried its head up and its tail free. It was this variety (now known as Arabs, though unknown in Arabia in ancient times) that the Egyptians harnessed to their chariots. The earliest mention of them in literature may be found in the Bible (Exodus xiv). The Egyptians probably obtained them first from the rough races of the Libyan desert west of the Delta, but it was the Pharaohs of the illustrious Eighteenth Dynasty who built chariots by the thousands and made of them a new weapon of destruction. It may easily be imagined how terrifying to an army on foot would be a host of galloping horses with expert archers discharging arrows from every chariot. Cavalry, it may be said, was as yet unknown. In the Near East, at least, men drove horses long before they rode them.

It was not long before other races adopted the chariot, and the Pharaohs, returning to their natural occupation, which was business rather than war, began to manufacture chariots and export them along with horses to the princes of Asia. In this traffic King Solomon of the Jews acted as agent, and no doubt drew a handsome profit from it. The Bible tells what he paid for them but not what he sold them for (I Kings x, 28-29). For about thirteen centuries war chariots continued in use in the Near East, but they were still used in far-distant Britain when Julius Caesar

went there in 55 B.C. The Celts of Britain were old-fashioned.

The law that those who live by the sword shall die by the sword holds good in the instance of Egypt. Eastern races have long memories. The raids of Egyptian kings invited raids from their rivals. After 1200 B.C. the great days of the country were terminated. It was conquered in turn by Nubians from the Upper Nile, by Assyrians, by Persians, and finally by Greeks. From 30 B.C. it was ruled by the Romans until the Arab conquests of the seventh century A.D. None of these conquests affected greatly the contribution of Egypt to civilization. The real legacy of Egypt lay in the arts of peace.

It is a weakness of the human race that things of curious interest arouse the imagination more powerfully than matters of great consequence. The mention of Egypt suggests pyramids and mummies. Neither is of much importance. The pyramids are useless monuments of royal pride, and the mummies hardly less so. From the royal corpse the heart was removed and placed in a separate vessel, as were also the other organs. The body was washed in palm wine and all the cavities filled with myrrh, cinnamon and other spices. It was then soaked in a solution of salt or soda for seventy days, after which it was dried and wrapped with linen bandages, each toe, finger and limb separately, with longer and broader bandages over all. It was then laid in a wooden sarcophagus and deposited in the tomb with a complete set of ornaments, jewellery, weapons, furniture and other objects as in life.

Since it is a rare event to find a tomb that has not been discovered and robbed, the interest of the whole civilized world was aroused in 1922 when the burial chambers of the young king, Tutankhamen, were revealed, with all the royal treasure undisturbed. They yielded an amazing store of gold work, porcelain and furniture, including chariots. The mummy itself was found in a sealed chamber deep under-

ground. It was enclosed in seven coffins, the innermost of solid gold, worth the sum of eighty thousand dollars in modern money. Tutankhamen's reign fell in the later years of the illustrious Eighteenth Dynasty and lasted from 1360 to 1350 B.C., but the dates of Egyptian history are easily disputed.

The belief in the resurrection of the body, in the life after death, judgment, and reward to the righteous, was the very core of the religion of the Egyptians. The righteous were believed to rejoin their family and loved ones, and to recognize old friends. There was no purgatory, and the unrighteous were blotted out of existence. All the lore of the Other World was written on the walls of tombs and on the sarcophagi or coffins, and it was expounded in numberless books. The most famous of all Egyptian writings was the Book of the Dead. The life after death was also represented in numberless paintings, among which a frequent theme was the weighing of the heart of the dead, against which, in the other pan of the scale, was placed a feather, the symbol of right and truth. The judge was the great god Osiris, who had himself risen from the dead. He was hailed as "King of Eternity, lord of the everlastingness, the god of gods, the king of kings, the lord of lords, prince of princes, the governor of the world, whose existence is everlasting".

The religion of Egypt as a whole was essentially African, and developed differently from those of the Hebrews, Greeks and Chinese. Just as the Negroes of Central Africa to-day believe that all things, animate and inanimate, are inhabited by spirits, which may do good or harm, so the Egyptians made gods of a multitude of creatures and things. The total number known by name is about 2,200. The land was divided into forty-two nomes or townships, and not only did each nome have its patron god, but also each village. There were a score of animal gods, such as the Apis bull, the dog-headed or jackal-headed god, crocodile-gods,

lion-gods, cat-gods, and hippopotamus-goddesses. There were fish-gods and also insect-gods, among the latter being the sacred scarab, a beetle which emerges from the ground and symbolized the resurrection. Very important was the Nile god, and even more so Ra, the sun god, whom the Pharaohs came to regard as their father. The god Set corresponded to Satan. The earth-goddess Isis was associated with Osiris, and with women; she was later worshipped in foreign lands, including Asia, Greece, and Rome. The hawk was a king-god, a royal bird, like the eagle among the Romans.



Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art

JUDGMENT OF THE DEAD

Anubis, the jackal-headed god of the dead, weighs the heart of the deceased, which is in the jar; in the other pan of the scale is a feather, symbol of right and truth. Thoth, the ibis-headed god of learning, with palette and writing-brush records the verdict. The figure at the left represents the deceased. From a papyrus of 1500 B.C.

CHAPTER VII

THE ARTS AND CRAFTS IN EGYPT

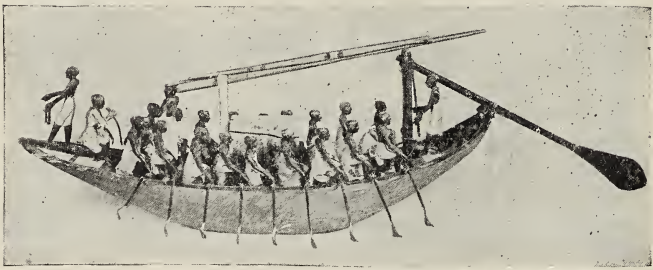
Egypt the Greatest of all Teachers—Evolution of the Ship—Phoenician Ships—Pen-and-Ink Writing—Paper from the Papyrus Plant—The Alphabet—Egyptian Dynasties—The Art of Reckoning time—Origin of the Calendar—The Art of the Stone-Mason—The Architecture of Temples—The Art of the Painter—The Art of the Potter—The Art of the Glass-Worker—Drilling Vessels of Stone—Other Crafts of the Egyptian—The Art of the Sculptor.

If we ask ourselves what part was played by Egypt in the long story of human progress, the answer to this question would fill a long chapter. It is doubtful if any other single country has seen the birth of so many useful arts or so much useful knowledge. It has often been said of Greece that it was the school of the Ancient World, but the Greeks themselves went to school to the Egyptians. Long before the Greeks had come southward out of the forests of Central Europe to build cities around the sunny shores of the Aegean sea, the arts and crafts of Egypt had been exercising their humanizing influence upon the surrounding races. Egypt was, perhaps, the greatest of all teachers.

One of the first and best gifts of Egypt to the world was the ship. As is so often the case with useful things, the ship was not invented; it was developed by degrees. It did not develop out of the dug-out, made from a single log, which was found among primitive races in Central Africa and far away among the Indians of British Columbia. It began with the light boat constructed of reeds on the banks of the Nile. There in the hot swamps the papyrus plants grew tall and slender. The Egyptians made bundles of them tapering at both ends. They made the boat by laying the bundles side by side and tying them together, turning them upwards at both ends somewhat like a Venetian gondola. It was rendered waterproof with pitch. This light

boat was used for hunting in the marshes and for carrying merchandise up and down the river.

In the course of time some ingenious and venturesome man conceived the idea of making a boat of long slender planks in a similar way, and he so tapered them as to turn up both ends of the boat in precisely the same way as his ancestors had always done with the boat of reeds. He still



Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art

AN EGYPTIAN BOAT

This is a picture of a model which may be seen in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

spoke of "weaving" a boat although the planks were fastened together with pegs and dove-tailed pieces of wood. Vegetable fibres were pounded into the seams for caulking. With a huge gondola of this kind the Egyptian landowner carried his wheat and dates to market downstream with the current. With the help of oars and a single square sail he made his way upstream and homeward. Thus the boat was his farm-wagon or truck; it was also his vehicle for pleasure trips. It was also his hearse, because the places of burial lay across the river from the cities and estates. This idea that "crossing the river" means death has survived even in Christian hymns.

The Phoenicians of Tyre and Sidon learned from the Egyptians how to build ships, but they improved the model. They left the stern with a high curve, where the steersman

sat, but they gave a long, sharp and low point to the prow to hold it down and cleave the water. With such craft the Phoenicians fared to the islands of the Aegean sea, to Spain, and even through the Atlantic to Britain. For thousands of years this type of ship, with high stern, sharp prow, oars and square sail, remained the standard. It was as familiar in the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean as it was in the ports of Greece and Spain.

It was these same Phoenician traders who carried to Greece, and so to Europe and all mankind, the art of writing with pen and ink, but pen-and-ink writing was also a gift of Egypt to mankind. Long before the prying merchants of Tyre or Sidon had come sailing into the Delta to trade, the scribes with shaven heads had stood with poised tablets, pen in hand, to take down the orders of the Pharaoh. The pen was made of a hollow reed, pointed and split like our steel pens, but this split-pointed pen was itself a refinement. In still earlier times the scribe had used a pencil of wood with a macerated end, which was practically a small brush. Brush-writing was independently invented in China but never developed there into pen-writing. The Chinese still write with brushes.

The step from the brush-pen to the split pen might never have been made if the ingenious Egyptian had not discovered something better than potsherds and flat bones to write upon. The new writing material was a kind of paper. It was made by cutting into thin slices the long fibrous stalks of the papyrus plant, laying them crosswise upon one another, pounding them flat and drying them. This "papyrus", as it is called, from which our word *paper* is derived, was trimmed into lengths about twenty feet long and sold to the trade in the form of rolls. The chief centre of the trade in the days of the Greeks was the port of Byblos in Phoenicia, and so the Greeks called it *biblos;* from this word comes our English *Bible.* However, for two thousand years before papyrus rolls began to be sold around the Mediter-

ranean lands, they had been used in Egypt for letters, for accounts, and for books. Hundreds of specimens have been found in tombs and rubbish heaps, and more are still being found.

Another debt of the world to Egypt is the alphabet. This, like the ship and the pen, was not an invention but a development. At first the Egyptians wrote down a story by drawing pictures in a row, just as American Indians did. For example, a little drawing of three men standing by a fire with a deer pierced by an arrow might mean "three men shot a deer, made a fire, cooked their supper and camped for the night". So in the picture-writing of the Egyptians a man in a boat meant "cross", a stork looking at the ground meant "seek", or a pair of legs meant "run". Other signs were symbols; a picture of a hawk meant "king" and a head of the lotus flower meant 1,000. It is just as if the head of a dandelion should have been used for 1,000, because it has a multitude of petals.

In the second stage of the development of writing the picture stands, not for an idea, but for a syllable. A picture of a lark beside a picture of a spur might be made to stand for "larkspur", which is a flower. In the third stage the sign stands, not for an idea nor yet for a syllable, but for a single sound. Thus a true alphabet comes into being. Some scholars claim that the Egyptians had a true alphabet of twenty-four letters earlier than 3000 B.C., though they wrote only in consonants. It was just as if we should write larkspur, *lrkspr,* or as we actually do write building, *bldg.* The Phoenicians learned the letters from the Egyptians, and the Greeks learned them from the Phoenicians. Certain sounds of the Greek language, however, were lacking in the Phoenician, and certain sounds of the Phoenician were lacking in the Greek, It was necessary, therefore, to give certain letters a new value, and the Greeks made use of letters otherwise unneeded to denote vowels for the first time. The Romans in turn learned the

Greek letters, changing them but little, and from the Romans all the nations of western Europe adopted their alphabet, including the English people.

The picture-signs of the Egyptians were employed to inscribe the deeds of kings upon the rocks. They were explained by the priests to Greek travellers, who gave them the name "hieroglyphics", which means sacred carvings. In a more cursive or running hand, books of religion, magic and travel were written. There were no true histories. Of kings it was said that they belonged to such and such Dynasties. Thus the famous Thutmose III, conqueror of Palestine, Syria and Mesopotamia, belonged to the illustrious Eighteenth Dynasty. This is not accurate enough for modern historians, who figure out that this Dynasty prevailed from 1600 to 1350 B.C., and that Thutmose ruled from 1479 to 1477 B.C. All dates in Egyptian history, however, are uncertain before the conquest of Alexander the Great, 332 B.C.

The failure of the Egyptians to discover a method of dating events is not remarkable. The same failure must be scored against all the most intelligent races of Asia, including the Hebrews, Persians, Assyrians, and the races of India and China. Only in western Europe can men date events precisely. The Greeks made a beginning by reckoning the years from the first celebration of the Olympian games, 776 B.C. Late in their history the Romans began to count the years from the foundation of their city, 754 B.C. In the sixth century A.D. the years began to be regularly reckoned by all the nations of western Europe from the birth of Christ. It is only in the history of Christian countries, therefore, that all events can be dated accurately.

The great contribution of the Egyptians to the reckoning of time was the invention of the calendar. The calendar now in use came to us from the Egyptians, although the names of the months are Roman and the division into weeks of seven days is Jewish. Perhaps as early as the

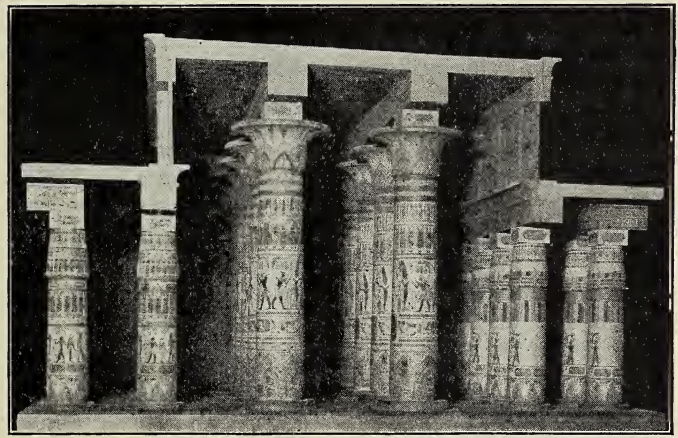
year 4241 B.C. the Egyptians possessed the knowledge that the sun returns to the same place in the heavens after 365 days. They had twelve months of thirty days each, which made 360 days, and they kept holiday for the remaining five, which corresponds to our own Christmas holidays. Almost all other races, including the Jews and the Greeks, reckoned time by the moon, which is very difficult and unsatisfactory. The custom of inserting leap year every four years was instituted by Julius Caesar in 46 B.C., but even this device came from Egypt.

The art of the stone-mason also had its origin in Egypt. This, too, was developed step by step. Its beginnings are found far back in the Stone Ages, 10,000 years before Christ, or earlier. Already in those days it was the custom to dig a grave in the sand for the reception of the dead. For the protection of the body slabs of stone would be set up around it and over it. This was the first stone-masonry. The next step was to dress the stone roughly to the shapes required. Thus by degrees the idea expanded until neat stone burial chambers were constructed underground. In the course of time the top of the tomb came to be protected by masonry above ground, and at last the custom of erecting massive pyramids came into vogue. So far as the development of architecture was concerned, however, a pyramid is a blind alley; it is a structure useless to man except as a monument.

It was a genuine step forward, on the other hand, when the artful Egyptian began to build temples of stone. Temples and houses alike, from the Ages of Stone downwards, had been built of sun-dried bricks of mud mixed with straw. Doors, door-frames and roof-beams were of wood, as were also the pillars that supported the roof if it was large. Why not make these parts of stone? The scarcity of wood in Egypt not only suggested this plan, but almost made it a necessity. The labour involved was stupendous, but labour was cheap and abundant. So the wealthy

Pharaohs began to turn their mud structures into stone. Pillars that once had been the trunks of palm trees were replaced by columns of the hardest stone with a garland of palm leaves around the top, which is called the capital. Even the wooden door-frames and the roof-beams were replaced gradually by giant slabs of this material.

The temple resembled the house of a rich nobleman or the Pharaoh, but was more magnificent. A broad driveway



Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art

TEMPLE OF KARNAK

led through an imposing gateway into the temple court or precinct, shaded by clustering palms. At the far end stood the temple, approached by an avenue bordered by figures of sphinxes, towering statues of Pharaohs and the needles of stone called obelisks. Such was the great temple at Karnak, the columns of which are sixty-nine feet high. It was the glory of Thebes.

As the centuries went by, and they were many, many centuries, exquisite temples of a similar kind, but smaller,

more elegant and graceful, began to be built across the Mediterranean in the busy little cities of the Greeks. The arts of the stone-mason and the stone-cutter and the sculptor had crossed the sea from Egypt. At a far earlier date they had penetrated into Asia, where, as in Egypt, sun-dried bricks were replaced by stone as the material of monumental buildings. It was from these eastern parts that the rounded arch of stone came into use, which enriched the resources of European architects in later days.

The art of the painter grew out of the art of writing. The shaven scribe was also a painter. The first writing material was made of some pot-black mixed with a vegetable gum and water. It was easy to mix in with this some finely-ground coloured earths as colouring material. The scribe would have in his hand a wooden palette, not unlike a small box of water-colour paints, with hollows for mixing his pigments and a long groove to hold his pens and brushes. Not only were the hieroglyphics or sacred writings done in colours, but the walls of the temples were gorgeously decorated with pictures of the processions of kings and priests, expeditions, victories, and voyages of trade. The whole life of the ancient Egyptians is recorded more faithfully in their pictures than in their books. They failed to write their histories, but carved and painted them. These arts too spread to other lands. Egypt was truly the school of the ancient world. Its influence reached to Italy on the west, to Troy in the Aegean Sea, to the Hittite capital far in the interior of Asia Minor, to Assyria, Babylon and even to India.

It is the dire necessities of men that create the arts of life. Just as the relatively woodless land of Egypt gave birth to the art of the stone-mason, so it developed to a high degree the craft of the potter. Far back in the Stone Ages the handy Egyptian was making vessels of clay and firing them to hardness in a small fire of sticks or dried cow-dung,

just as the American Indians did and still do. A Mexican peasant can still make a jug of clay, dry it, and fire it with a quick fire of cornstalks. In ancient Egypt the art of the potter grew out of the art of the weaver. One may imagine the humble peasant long ago making long ropes of soft clay, winding them in a rising coil to the shape of a bowl, and dressing them down to smoothness with his supple hand dipped in water. He would scoop out a shallow pit in the ground in which to bake his vessel.

It was a long step forward when some nameless inventor devised the potter's wheel. This was at first a small, circular table with a short leg that revolved in a socket. The potter squatted before it, turning it with his left hand while he moulded a bowl, a jar or a pitcher with his right. Step by step the method of firing was also improved. Instead of a shallow pit in the ground, someone conceived the idea of an oval oven or kiln as tall as a man, in which dozens of objects could be baked to hardness at one time. By and by the use of coloured paints that would stand firing was also discovered. The whole industry was copied by the Cretans and Greeks across the sea, who in time surpassed their Egyptian teachers, as pupils often do. It is quite the common thing in history for transplanted arts to flourish better in a new home.

Closely allied to the art of the potter in Egypt was the art of the worker in glass. When sand suitable for making glass had been found, it was heated to softness in a furnace with a fierce fire. In this condition it readily adheres to a metal rod and it ropes like taffy. These ropes of glowing glass were handled like the clay ropes of the primitive potter. They were coiled around a core into the shape desired, fired again to fuse the surfaces together, and then rolled on a stone until smooth. When methods of colouring glass were at length developed, ropes of different colours were used, which gave to the vessel an appearance not unlike

that of wool knitted of various colours of yarns. The art of blowing glass was discovered just before the beginning of the Christian era, and will be mentioned later.

For a long time before the diligent and artful Egyptian learned to make vessels of glass he had practised a method of making exquisite vessels of alabaster, a hard, translucent stone, by boring and polishing. This was a laborious and tedious process, but time meant nothing to an Egyptian. The knowledge of the drill was a legacy from the Old Stone Age, when all human beings made fire by boring one dry stick into another. Both the American Indian and the ancient Egyptians used weighted drills for heavier work. The weights consisted in each case of stones bound to the stem of the drill by means of twine or thongs. To drill out the interior of the vases the Egyptians imported carborundum dust from the island of Thera in the Aegean Sea. This dust, mixed with water, made a powerful abrasive paste. The same material is now used in making emery wheels.

Space is lacking for recording all the arts of the Egyptians. It must suffice to add that they were skilful cabinet-makers, and that the chairs they made were much like our own; that they knew all the tricks of the goldsmith and worked in silver, copper and bronze, as well; that they also made a great variety of jewellery and ornaments; that they worked in amethyst, garnet, agate, onyx, carnelian, jasper, lapis lazuli, turquoise, coral and other stones less precious; and that the tombs abound in ornaments of all kinds, rings, bracelets, armlets, pendants, and amulets.

Egyptian sculptors carved marvellous likenesses of the Pharaohs, larger than life, not in white marble but in dark stones, reproducing with great success the expression of power and authority. To modern people these statues seem stiff and formal, but the ancient Egyptians regarded their rulers as gods, a race exalted above the common breed of men, and destined for an immortal life in a place apart.

The Greeks took their first lessons in sculpture from the Egyptians, and quickly humanized the art, being a democratic people. They regarded with horror the Egyptian animal-headed gods and the human-headed lions, just as they shrank from the eagle-headed lions (griffins) and winged bulls of Assyria. The races of the Near East gave free rein to the imagination in such matters.

CHAPTER VIII

AEGEAN CIVILIZATION

The Bronze Age in the Mediterranean—Conditions of European Races—Domestic Plants and Animals; Tools.

THE CENTRE OF BRONZE AGE CULTURE.—Excavations in Crete —Relations of Crete and Egypt.

TROY AND MYCENAE.—Schliemann's Excavations—Bull-Fighting in Crete—The Labyrinth.

THE HITTITES.—Relations of Cretans and Hittites.

THE PHOENICIANS.—Phoenician Purple Cloth—Phoenician Mines —Geographical Knowledge a Secret—General Conditions, 1000 B.C.

The purpose of this chapter is to tell what beginnings of culture were being made among the races of Europe while the older civilizations were growing up with toil and bloodshed in the valleys of the Two Rivers and the Nile. The space of time is the two thousand years before the reign of Solomon, and the scene of action is the two thousand miles of the great Wheat Area that extends from Palestine to the Atlantic Ocean. This is the Age of Bronze, which lasted from 3000 to 1000 B.C.

During the first part of this epoch, while the patient Egyptians were toiling at the building of pyramids, and men like Sargon were building their terraced towers of bricks in the plain of Shinar, the diligent, ingenious Brown Men of the Mediterranean coasts were living in peaceful possession of their fields; they were working their way along the Atlantic shores to Britain and Ireland. Around the Baltic Sea and in the great forests and clearings of Central Europe the fair-haired ancestors of the Celts, Saxons, and Germans, had not yet begun the wholesale migrations which, not long afterwards, were to open new chapters of history in all countries from Spain to India.

In the Mediterranean the fig, the grape and the olive were being introduced everywhere from the Near East. Throughout the whole Mediterranean region and also in

western Europe the soil was ploughed with oxen to receive the seed of wheat, barley and millet. Men had sheep, goats, swine and dogs. They dressed in wool and linen. They still used arrow-heads, spear-heads and axes of stone, but daggers and axes of bronze were beginning to circulate among



THE LITTLE CRETAN EMPIRE 3000-1400 B.C.

the princes. They worshipped the Sun and set up mysterious pillars of stone around their sacred places.

THE CENTRE OF BRONZE AGE CULTURE

In modern times it is well known that new products are first made and distributed from certain centres. For example, the oil business has spread from Pennsylvania and the motor-car business from Detroit to all parts of the

world. If we ask ourselves in what place the culture of the Bronze Age in Europe was centred, the answer is the island of Crete, on the southern margin of the Aegean Sea.

This fact was not known before 1900. The story of it was never written down, and it was revealed by the spade. The credit for the discovery belongs chiefly to Sir Arthur Evans, who slowly uncovered and interpreted the ruins of a once important city, Cnossus, situated in the middle of the north shore of the island. Cnossus was only the chief of



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology
GREEK VASES FROM EGYPTIAN TOMBS

several cities. On the opposite shore to the southward was Phaestus, from which ships set out to the mouths of the Nile.

At Cnossus the principal remains are those of a vast palace erected over older dwellings of the Stone Age. It had been continuously inhabited for more than two thousand years. The pottery reveals a long development, from the time when vessels were made by coiling ropes of clay and firing them in shallow pits to the time when the potter's wheel and the oval-shaped kiln were introduced from Egypt. The skill of the potters had so developed that their products were exported to Egypt and placed in tombs of noblemen as furniture of precious value. The identification of Cretan vases in Egypt was matched by the discovery of Egyptian seals in Crete itself. It was manifest that Crete was a depot of Egyptian trade. There were also clay tablets inscribed with a writing that cannot be read. The presence of these clay tablets shows that Crete was

also in touch with Asia, and that they had developed a writing of their own in spite of this fact.

Troy and Mycenae

These discoveries of Sir Arthur Evans enabled men to reconstruct better than before the pattern of civilization



Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art

Cretan Pottery, 1600-1500 B.C.
Note the Octopus and Other Marine Creatures

in the Aegean Sea during the Bronze Age. Some thirty years previously a German investigator named Henry Schliemann had excavated on the site of Troy far up in the northeast corner of the Aegean Sea near the Dardanelles. He found there a mound which consisted of the ruins of several cities, built one above another in successive ages. It has since been shown that nine cities had existed on the site, each captured and burned in turn, only to have a new city erected above it. Schliemann thought that the second city had been the Troy that was celebrated in the poems of the Greek poet Homer, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. Later diggings have proven that Homer's Troy was the sixth city from the bottom.

Schliemann had also sought for the site of Mycenae,

the home of the great Homeric king Agamemnon. He did succeed in discovering it on the road between the gulf of Argos and the city of Corinth, but he was mistaken in thinking that the gold crown and other objects revealed in the royal graves were of the Trojan age. A comparison with the Cretan discoveries showed that they were older. At Tiryns, nearer the gulf of Argos, another palace was uncovered of a like age. Around the main room ran a dado of stone covered with a substance of a dark wine colour called *kyanos*. What this word meant had been a matter of debate among scholars. A few strokes of the spade had settled it. Experts recognized it as a blue glass paste familiar among Egyptian glass-workers.

Of particular interest have been certain gold cups found in southern Greece. These are skilfully adorned with pictures of slender men and women taming wild bulls or vaulting over their heads as they charged. The same subjects are depicted in wall paintings at Cnossus. At Cnossus were also found statuettes of ivory and gold corresponding to the figures on the cups in the paintings. It is manifest that bull-baiting was the chief amusement of the kings. There may be a reference to the same sport among the legends of later Greek heroes. One of them tells how seven beautiful boys and seven beautiful girls were demanded every year as tribute of the people of Athens, to be taken to Crete and devoured by a bull-headed man called the Minotaur, or Minos-bull. This may very well have been true in a certain sense. The boys and girls were to be trained as bull-baiters, and many were no doubt killed, as toreadors are in Spain. Tribute in the form of human beings is not uncommon in history. The Turks used to demand it even within recent times.

This Minos-bull was supposed to be kept in a maze called the Labyrinth. Minos has always been known as the greatest sea-king of Crete, and now an explanation has been offered of the word Labyrinth. At Cnossus were

found representations of double-axes (labrus). They were sacred for some reason. It is suggested that Labyrinth means *City of the Double Axe.*

Cretan civilization flourished from 3000 to 1450 B.C., when Cnossus was mysteriously destroyed. Its place was taken by Mycenae on the mainland of Greece, where the same arts flourished for another three centuries, till 1150. To the north they never penetrated far beyond the Gulf of Corinth, but they permeated Boeotia (map page 121). The prosperity of Crete depended upon ships, and this kind of commerce developed in World History much more slowly than caravan trade. The first merchant ships were Egyptian, as early as 3000 B.C. The Cretan navy came later, and after the destruction of Cnossus the chief seafaring men were the Phoenicians of Tyre and Sidon.

The Hittites

The Cretans worshipped a male god armed with a double-axe, and also the Earth-Mother. This connects them with Asia Minor rather than with Egypt and Palestine. The double-axe and the Earth-Mother were revered by the Hittites of Asia Minor, whose commerce flourished in the same age as that of the Cretan kings. Their capital was called Khatti (modern village Boghaz-keui) in Asia Minor, east of Troy, which was in touch with Crete. It must be remembered also that the west coasts of Asia Minor were inhabited by the same brown race that lived in the islands of the Aegean Sea and on the mainland of Greece. Their habitations marked the limits of Cretan commerce. Hittite commerce filtered through, and in the succeeding age brought the use of iron.

The Phoenicians

The decline of one race is the opportunity of another. The Phoenicians seized the commerce that was lost by the kings of Crete. To understand these people it must be

remembered that they were Semites who had come in from the desert. It matters little that they had been city-dwellers for two thousand years; their methods of traffic were still the same. The caravan-trader would leave his wife or wives in a safe caravan city, and take his departure for a long trading journey of six months, a year, or even two or three years. His method did not change greatly when he took to the sea. He found his way by the stars as he did in the desert. He left his family in a safe port instead of a caravan city and he counted upon long absences. "Once in three years came the navy of Tharshish," may be read in the Bible, I Kings x, 22. A single long voyage often meant wealth.

Much of the trade of the Phoenician was like that of the white man in Africa, trading glass beads and cheap cloth, worth a few pennies, for ivory and precious minerals. To the barbarian prince he offered gleaming bronze daggers, crimson cloths, and carved objects of ivory, and he took in return his gold, his amber, and his ox-hides. The Phoenicians were also notorious as slave-dealers, and woe unto the boy or girl who wandered alone on the shore when the Tyrian trader beached the high stern of his ship.

No voyage was too distant for the Tyrians and Sidonians. They sought far and near for the feeding grounds of a certain shell-fish, from which were extracted the exquisite crimson and purple dyes that made their fabrics famous. They found these shell-fish off the coast of southern Gaul (France), near the modern city of Monte Carlo, and also around the bay of Naples, but from both these haunts they were driven by the Greeks. The Greek town of Tarentum became the rival of Tyre and Sidon in producing soft and beautiful coloured woollens and linens.

They also sought for mines, and they found them. It is said of Solomon in I Kings x, 27, "And the king made silver to be in Jerusalem as stones," which was no doubt the product of the Spanish mines of his partner, Hiram of Tyre. Placer gold was also found in the Tagus River, which

accounts for part of their gold. The advent of the Bronze Age started the Phoenicians to prospecting for tin, and it was this quest that took them along the Atlantic coast to Britain, but there is no doubt that they scoured every mountain-side on the intervening shores. We may picture them bargaining with native princes in Britain for the labour of thousands of their subjects for deadly toil in the mines, and paying them with bronze daggers, and spear-heads.

When the Romans defeated the Carthaginians and took Spain away from them, we know that there were thirty or forty thousand unfortunate natives working in the silver mines. The truth is that it was the mineral wealth of the western Mediterranean that induced the Phoenicians to settle there. They did not found a great city in Spain, because the cruel business of mining by slave labour was better conducted from a distance. They founded Carthage (Phoenician, *Newtown*) on the shores of Africa opposite Sicily. There they built a city on a safe shore, with the desert, away from which no Tyrian felt at home, close by. They were no longer compelled to share the profits with partners at home. It was a monopoly.

This monopoly was successfully guarded for seven centuries. Carthaginian sea-captains wrote no books about their voyages. Their knowledge of geography was kept a secret. They made the Mediterranean from Sicily to Gibraltar a Carthaginian sea. Ships of Greek intruders were sunk on sight, if possible. One Carthaginian captain, pursued by a daring Greek, whose crew was too strong to be attacked, deliberately wrecked his vessel rather than reveal the port of his trade on the Atlantic.

Such was the pattern of Mediterranean life at the end of the Bronze Age, when iron was just beginning to arrive from the Hittite mines on the Black Sea coast. There was for the time being no great empire in the Near East. The Hittites and the Egyptians at opposite ends, north and

south of the civilized world, had weakened one another almost to the point of exhaustion. Assyria in the rear on the Tigris was strong, but not yet supreme. Babylon was ruled by minor dynasties. On the other hand, the great caravan city of Damascus was strong, and Samaria and Jerusalem were approaching prosperity. The great era of Solomon came very soon. The Phoenicians were the most prosperous of all.

The great white races of Central Europe in the meanwhile had begun to move, and their migrations marked the beginning of a new age in the Mediterranean and eventually in World History.

CHAPTER IX

THE COMING OF THE GREEKS

Lagging of the Arts in Central Europe—Migrations of Indo-Europeans—The Greeks or Hellenes—The Land of Greece.

The Little Homeric Kings.—Story of the Trojan War.

Migrations of the Greek Tribes.—Dorians, Ionians and Aeolians.

Achaean and Greek Robbers.—Rebirth of Aegean Civilization.

The Colonial Age, 800-600 B.C.—Growth of Manufacturing—Greeks in Cyprus and Egypt—Greeks and Etruscans in Italy—Extent of Greek Commerce.

While the riches of land and sea were flowing into the homes and palaces of Egyptian Thebes, and the raiding armies of kings were building empire after empire in the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates, the fair-haired white races of the great forests and pasture lands of Central Europe had been making less progress. They despised agriculture, but practised it a little. They despised men who built houses and they made it a principle to move frequently. They raided their neighbours every spring, just as the tribes of the desert did. The noblemen kept huge households of sons, daughters-in-law, slaves and retainers. The chief foods were flesh of domestic animals and wild game. Their bowls and trenchers were for the most part made of wood, because they were forest folk. Their wealth consisted of herds of horses, cattle, sheep and swine. They had ox-carts in which they transported their women and children. The men rode horses and carried long spears with bronze heads.

Between 2000 and 1000 B.C. the annual raids of these blue-eyed Indo-Europeans (pages 33-35) expanded into mass movements on a colossal scale. Some went eastward around the Caspian Sea as far as Persia and India, which they conquered. Somewhat later others went westward as far as Spain and Gaul, where they made permanent homes.

Between these two extremes there were other tribes who made their homes in the Balkan Peninsula or crossed the Hellespont into the Hittite Empire.

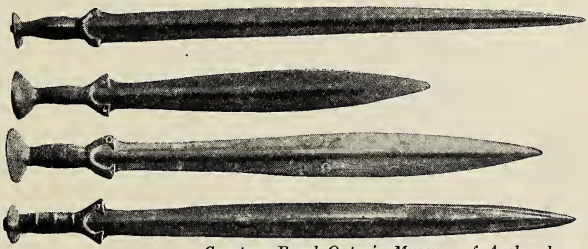
Centuries elapsed while these virile races were learning the arts of the peoples whom they conquered. The first branches of the race to enter into World History in the West were those whom destiny had guided to the Balkan Peninsula. In this rough region, where criss-cross mountain ranges cut up the land into a multitude of small valleys, the migration of multitudes in long lines of ox-carts was difficult. Hundreds of men often made raids with few women folk; they conquered, took dark-eyed wives of the Aegean race and settled down to rule. To all of these invaders the name Greeks has been given (Latin *Graeci*). They called themselves Hellenes and the new country Hellas.

Ancient Greece, or Hellas, is a small country, consisting of a small mainland, much coast-land, and some five hundred islands. Its central point lies in the Aegean Sea, and a circle with a radius of three hundred miles will comprise the whole of it. The Peloponnesus, that is, the peninsula south of the gulf of Corinth, is only sixty miles from side to side. On the north of the Aegean Sea only the shore of Thrace was ever part of Hellas. Only the islands and little peninsulas of the coast of Asia Minor came within its borders. The southern limit was the island of Crete. The civilization that grew up in this confined area depended upon boats for its prosperity, and so was very different from the caravan civilization of Asia or the river civilization of Egypt, Mesopotamia, India or China. It differed still more from the civilization of Central America or Peru, which grew up in the mountains.

The Little Homeric Kings

The first Greek tribe to come down from the north were the Achaeans, whose fame resounds in the poems of Homer, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. These epics, the finest in the

whole literature of the world, afford us a picture of Aegean civilization at the very beginning of the Iron Age, not long before 1000 B.C. The *Iliad* describes a great expedition of a thousand ships marshalled by Agamemnon, king of Mycenae, assisted by his brother Menelaus, king of Argos. Since Mycenae was a chief seat of the earlier Cretan civilization it is manifest that the Achaeans had conquered



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

SHORT BRONZE SWORDS

it. Apparently each Achaean chieftain had seized a city for himself and ruled the land surrounding it like a baron of the Feudal Age in Europe. Each called himself king, however, and all the little kings professed faith in the protection of the great sky-god, Zeus, the same whom the Romans called Jupiter. They lived in rough splendour in rectangular palaces supported on the inside by a few pillars. They had beautiful garments of linen and wool and they drank from vessels of gold, but the stables were hard by and the hounds prowled about the courtyard.

Homer relates how Agamemnon's fleet of a thousand ships conducted for ten years a siege of Troy to recover the beautiful Helen, wife of Menelaus, whom Paris, son of King Priam of Troy, had seized and carried away. Troy stood back from the sea on the north-east shore of the Aegean. On the plain between the citadel and the sea Achaean warfare might have been seen at its best. Metal was still too expensive to permit of arming multitudes, and there was

as yet no cavalry. It was the age of the war-chariots. The kings dash threateningly towards one another, make boastful speeches, and then dismount to engage in a combat of spears. If the spear reaches its mark the victor rushes in to cut his victim's throat with a short sword, and may



MIGRATIONS OF THE GREEK TRIBES
1500 - 1000 B. C.

even attach his body to the rear of the chariot and drive around the walls three times. The body of Hector, the chief defender of Troy, was so treated by the hero Achilles, though later he accepted ransom for the corpse.

Migrations of the Greek Tribes

Before Homer's time, however, the Achaean civilization had perished. The Achaeans had been conquered by

another tribe called Dorians, men of a stern, resolute race. As early as 1500 B.C. they were invading the Peloponnesus, but they did not stop there. As fish go upstream so they followed Cretan riches to their source. From Crete they sent detachments eastward to Rhodes and the shores of Asia Minor. North of this Doric belt of settlements, the Ionians, a gentler race, found homes. Athens was their chief city, but other groups went eastward to the middle islands and the corresponding shores of Asia Minor. North of the Ionians was another zone peopled by Aeolians. These three tribes, Dorians, Ionians, and Aeolians, comprised the Greek race of Hellenes (map, page 92).

To understand the type of life that arose after the various tribes settled down, it is necessary to remember that the fair-haired invaders from the north had been the haughty lords of large tracts of hunting ground, with herds of cattle and a small acreage of wheat and barley. In Greece they occupied the palaces of the Aegean princes and continued to be landlords, although they now possessed vineyards and olive-orchards. Their sport was hunting deer, bears, wolves, and even lions, which were still to be found in Greece. No poems survive from their time to tell us of their robberies by land and sea, but it is not likely that their methods were greatly different from those of the Achaeans who preceded them. The sources of Achaean wealth are revealed by Homer, especially in the *Odyssey*.

Achaean and Greek Robbers

The kingdom of Ulysses was the little island of Ithaca, west of the Peloponnesus, too barren and rough for horses, but herds of swine and cattle kept the table groaning with meats. Still richer kingdoms were to be found in the Peloponnesus. For example, Telemachus, son of Ulysses, pays a visit to old Nestor, king of Pylos on the mainland. Nestor's son hitches the horses to a chariot and sets out to drive him to visit Menelaus in Argos. They spend the

first night with a friendly king and arrive at Argos the next evening. The prince Telemachus, son of a poor king, is amazed at the splendour of the throne room: "Son of Nestor, delight of my heart, mark the flashing of bronze through the echoing halls, and the flashing of gold and of silver and of ivory. Suchlike, methinks, is the court of Olympian Zeus within, for the world of things that are here; wonder comes over me as I look thereon."

Menelaus proceeds to explain that he had "roamed over Cyprus and Phoenicia and Egypt" collecting this wealth. It was not the fruit of commerce, but of robbery. The Achaean king was a pirate, just as his forebears had been robbers in the lands to the north. By capturing and raiding some luckless town he secured cheaply and gloriously the vessels of gold and silver, the bronze basins, the daggers, the ivory combs, the safety-pins of bronze, the brooches and pins of gold. The Phoenician, professedly a merchant, was in reality more ignoble. In Homer he is consistently represented as a kidnapper and a plotter. It was an age of anarchy on the sea. No Achaean prince ever built a palace on the shore. It was planted on a hill at a distance of two or three miles from the water, and it was protected by stout walls of irregular but neatly fitted stones, which later ages called cyclopean, because they were believed to have been built by giants called Cyclopes.

While the life of this age of Achaean robber princes and Phoenician pirate-traders is described for us in the poems of Homer, there is no written word surviving to tell us how the later age of Greek cities came into being. We only know that, when the literary period begins again, the coasts and islands of the Aegean Sea are dotted by hundreds of little fortified cities, each with a fleet of merchant ships and a little territory of land for grain, orchards and gardens. It is manifest, however, that this is the old Aegean civilization springing once more from roots that never died. The vigour, courage and enterprise of the intelligent Aegean

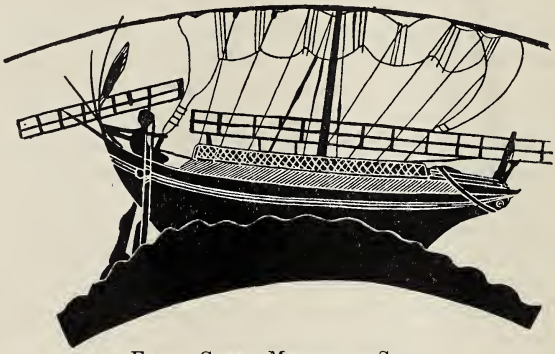
race had been enhanced by the infiltration of the strong blood of the invading Dorians, Ionians and Aeolians.

The Colonial Age, 800-600 B.C.

Other facts are certain also. The Greeks by this time are equipped with superior axes, chisels, gouges and saws, and are building their own ships in their own yards. They have long been doing so, because the Phoenician has been driven from the Aegean, and from the whole north coast of the Mediterranean from Asia Minor to Spain, although he still patrols the African shore from Egypt to Gibraltar. There is no longer anarchy on the sea. Pirates there still were, but the Greeks had learned that trading in the long run is preferable to robbery. Still another change has taken place. An age of colonization has begun. For example, the city-state of Miletus on the coast of Asia Minor found it so profitable to maintain permanent depots for trade in the Black Sea that some eighty colonies were founded there.

The secret of this increase of prosperity among the Greeks was the discovery of the Black Sea district. What had but recently been a mythical region of dragons and bulls, breathing fire from their nostrils, suddenly revealed itself as a great reservoir of food and raw materials, wheat, fish, hides for making leather, timber for ships, mineral clays for paint, and most important of all, iron. Soon the adaptable Greeks launched into manufacturing. They began to make better pottery, swords, breastplates, greaves for the legs, shields, helmets, and also more useful hardware, nails, hooks, and locks. It was the new colonies that furnished the markets for these goods, to say nothing of the beloved foods of the home-land, wine, cheese, and olive-oil for cooking and for salads. Ships had cargoes for both voyages, in and out. On a small scale it was an era like the seventeenth century in Europe, when British, Dutch and French East India Companies were vying with one another in the new colonial trade.

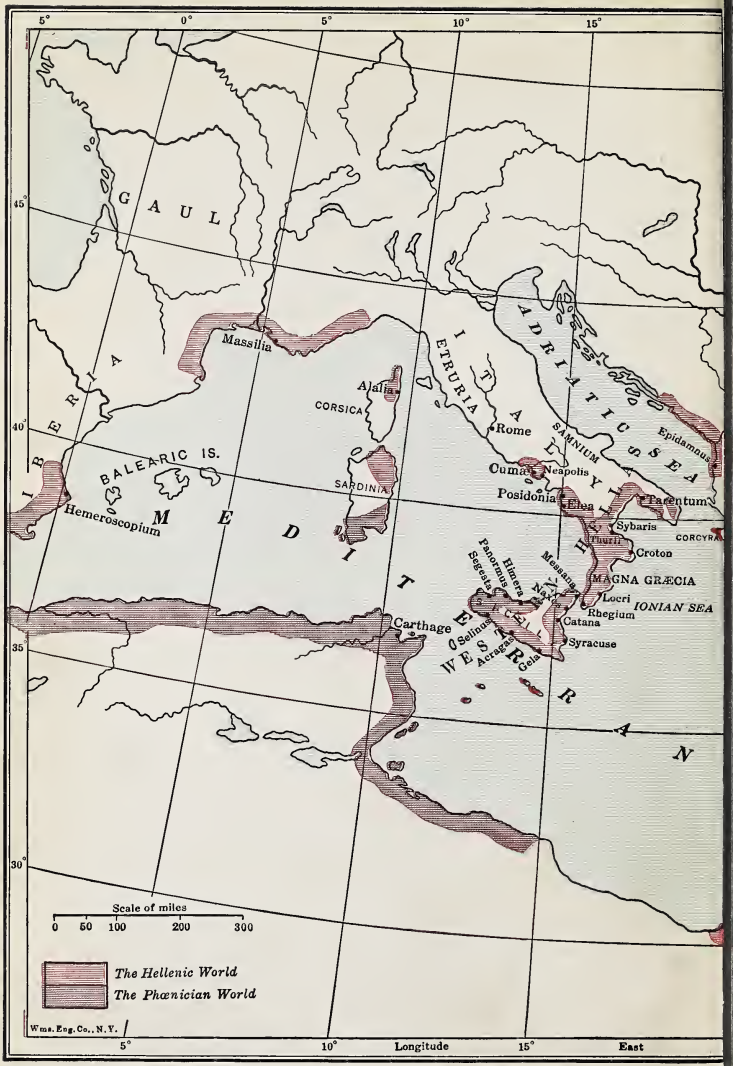
While this traffic was being increasingly centred in Miletus and other Ionian towns along the west coast of Asia Minor, the Assyrian Empire (pages 52-55) was growing fast on the Tigris. It repelled the Greeks from the shores of the eastern end of the Mediterranean. The island of Cyprus, however, had its Greek settlers; from the name of this island, Cupros, our English word *copper* is derived; its



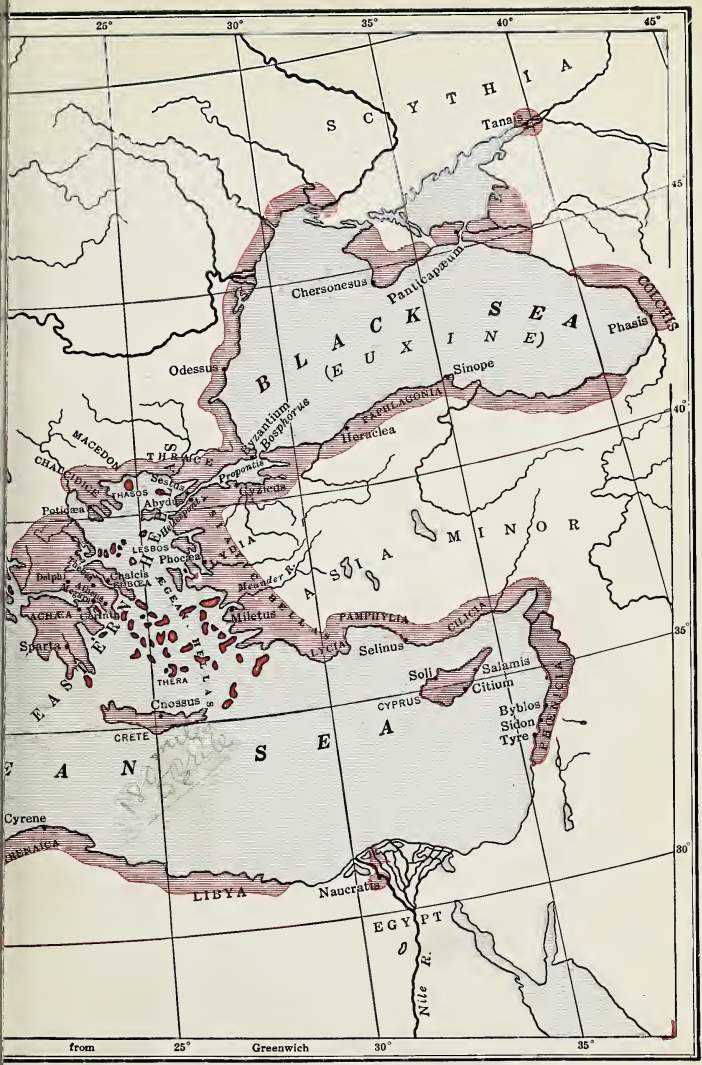
Early Greek Merchant Ship

mines were productive in the Bronze Age and long afterward. In Egypt the Milesian Greeks were granted a concession of land near one of the mouths of the Nile, where they built the city of Naucratis, a sort of ancient Shanghai or Hongkong, a Greek traders' settlement in a strange land. Westward of the Nile a Greek colony was later located at Cyrene, long famous for the swift horses called Libyan in ancient, and Arab in Christian times. This was the only Greek colony on a coast elsewhere dominated by the Phoenicians.

During this same epoch when the blue-cloaked horsemen and charioteers of Assyria were bearing down upon the caravan cities, so often conquered before, the sharp prows of the Greek ships were exploring the harbours of southern Italy and Sicily. They were not the first to go there from



ANCIENT HELLENIC



ND PHOENICIAN WORLDS

the east. Cretan ships had been there and afterwards the Phoenicians. Ships of mysterious strangers known as Etruscans had also arrived about 1000 B.C., driven from Asia by some unknown commotion. They had taken possession of the central part of Italy on the west side, from



the bay of Naples northward, and had scoured it in quest of good land and precious metals. It was because of their colonies, founded between 1000 and 800 B.C., that the Greek settlements were all located in the south or in Sicily. The western part of Sicily and Sardinia and Corsica continued to be held by the Carthaginians. Marseilles, however, was

Greek, founded 600 B.C. Southern Italy itself received the name of Magna Graecia, or Greater Greece.

In these regions the restless Greeks found a climate to their liking, where the tepid winds from Africa ripened their grapes and the pale green olive-orchards revelled in the sea-breeze. The Italian and Sicilian Greeks had come chiefly from the Dorian states of the Peloponnesus, but a few were Ionian. Syracuse became the wealthiest, but Tarentum reaped riches from the dyeing of wool. In the Adriatic the city-state of Corinth dominated the traffic with its colony of Corcyra, now Corfu. It need hardly be said, however, that none suspected in those days that in the centre of the Italian peninsula was a group of sturdy farmers who would shortly take their place in the procession of the founders of empires, the Romans. The kings of Rome flourished in the same age as the Assyrians.

The Greek colonial period lasted from 800 to 600 B.C. Through the port of Marseilles it shared in the tin trade of Britain on the west, and on the east it carried the iron of the Black Sea region. It tapped the trade in African ivory through Naucratis in Egypt. It possessed in Sicilian waters the best fisheries of the Mediterranean. The wines of the Aegean Islands were the best before Roman times. Wheat was grown by Scythians for Greeks in southern Russia. Thus an age of more abundant food and cheaper metals was beginning. The Greek world was to take a leap forward, just as Europe did when the colonial period began with the discovery of the Americas and the sea-route to the East Indies.

CHAPTER X

EVOLUTION OF THE GREEK CITY-STATES

Rise of the Nobility—Reaction Against Luxury.
CORINTH, A CITY-STATE.—Birth of Democracy—Stages of Political Change—The Origin of Tyranny—The Age of the Tyrants.
SPARTA, THE REACTIONARY STATE.—The Spartan Constitution.
ATHENS, THE PROGRESSIVE STATE.—Athens a Laboratory of Politics—Stages in the Growth of Democracy—The Meaning of Aristocracy—The Law-Givers, Draco and Solon—Pisistratus, the Tyrant.
THE ATHENIAN CONSTITUTION.—Athens, the Perfect City-State.

It has been mentioned already that the origin of the Greek city-states is obscure. We only know that during the Colonial Period (800-600 B.C.) the venturesome Greek merchant with his ship superseded the petty kings with their pillared palaces, their big households, their herds of swine and cattle, and their gaudy chariots and fast horses: the chariot survived only for horse-racing at such events as the Olympian Games, which were first organized in 776 B.C. The rich men no longer called themselves kings but noblemen; they still owned the land but they did not live upon it. They had become city-dwellers, spending the greater part of their time in such centres as Athens, Corinth, or Miletus, while tenants or stewards and slaves performed the labour upon the land.

At first all the city-states, Dorian, Ionian and Aeolic, developed in the same direction, growing in size, wealth, population and commerce as metals became cheaper and the seas safer, and colonies increased in number. Articles of luxury were received without misgiving, beautiful garments of crimson and purple, ivory combs, jewellery, and vessels of silver, gold and bronze for the kitchen and the dining room. In certain states, however, and especially Sparta, the increase of luxury awakened moral alarm, and the process was halted by a conservative revolution. The result was that a cleavage developed between Dorian states,

led by Sparta, and Ionian states, led by Athens. This cleavage in the long run ruined Greece, and its course must be traced, but first it is necessary to describe the city-state more accurately.

Corinth, A City-State

Corinth is a typical specimen of the early city-state. It lies at the eastern end of the Corinthian Gulf on the margin of a small plain. Roundabout are abundant mounds marking



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology
Corinthian Pottery

the sites of country palaces of Homeric days, but these had been abandoned before the eighth century for town dwellings near the shore. High above the lower city towered the walled citadel, on the summit of a hill two thousand feet high, the Acrocorinthus. The lower city contained numerous potteries, small workshops and foundries where skilled slaves made pottery, armour and bronze vessels for export. This combination of a citadel, a lower town for residence and business, a harbour for ships, and a group of neighbouring farms worked by tenants to furnish wine, olive-oil, fruit and vegetables, was characteristic of the city-state.

There were, of course, city-states in Egypt, such as Memphis and Thebes, in Phoenicia, such as Tyre and Sidon, and also in Shinar, such as Ur, Lagash and Kish, but the city-states of Greece were different because they grew into something that had never existed in the world before. The

Near East bred empires, bigger and better empires, it is true, but always empires. The Greek city-states, on the other hand, brought into the world something new in the way of government, namely, democracy, or "government of the people, by the people, and for the people". This ideal of government was transplanted to Rome along with the idea of empire, and the two were combined in the Roman Empire. Thus the Greek city-state represents a stage in World History of first-rate importance. Without a knowledge of it we cannot understand the ancient world.

The development of the Greek city-state took place by stages, which may be defined as follows:

1. Monarchy, or rule by kings.
2. Oligarchy, or rule by the few, who were noblemen.
3. Tyranny, or rule by despots, often benevolent.
4. Democracy, or rule by the people.

The decline of the monarchy was a result of the growth of trade, which enriched the nobles. Sooner or later the kingship was abolished or deprived of all effective power. The change from oligarchy to tyranny was due to the quarrelling of the nobles among themselves and to the increase of wealth, which caused the prosperous artisans to feel more important. A dissatisfied nobleman would take up their cause, seize the citadel with a band of trusted soldiers, drive all unfriendly families into exile, and rule the state to suit the wishes of himself and his friends. Such a man was called a tyrant. At first the word had no evil meaning; it signified only a person who seized the supreme power in a free state and ruled as a dictator.

Tyranny began at an early date in Corinth. A tyrant named Periander ruled from 625 to 585 B.C. He was a wise man and was numbered among the "seven sages" of Greece. In other Greek cities tyranny prevailed chiefly in the century from 600 to 500 B.C. This is "the age of the tyrants". It was an era of progress marked by the increasing cheapness of bronze and iron, the adoption of

coined money, the appearance of a wage-earning class, the erection of beautiful temples, and the beginnings of poetry, sculpture, science and philosophy.

Corinth, under Spartan influence, stopped short of the last step, from tyranny to democracy, and went back to the rule of the nobles. Sparta itself was even more reactionary; it scorned money and commerce, and set its face against progress. Athens, on the other hand, went through with every change from monarchy to complete democracy. This rift between the two leading states spread to all other cities; Athens and Sparta became types of democracy and oligarchy for all time.

Sparta, The Reactionary State

The Spartans turned their backs upon all change. They saw value only in hardship, poverty and discipline. They made life hard for themselves and for others. Infants were not reared unless they were strong and healthy. Boys were kept in barracks from the age of seven to twenty. They were inured to hard exercise and taught to endure hunger, cold, fatigue and harsh punishment. At twenty they became soldiers and were enrolled in clubs or messes, where they took their meals. At thirty they married and became members of the public assembly. Mothers and daughters had more liberty but were given physical training. For the ability to read and write there was little esteem.

The Spartan Constitution

The body of laws and usages by which a country is governed is called its Constitution. The Spartans gave sanctity to theirs by ascribing it to a mythical law-giver named Lycurgus, who is said to have lived in the ninth century, but this was a pious pretence. It really dated from about 550 B.C. when the reactionary nobles secured control of the state. They recognized two hereditary kings, which is a weak kind of monarchy. The ruling body was really a

council of thirty consisting of twenty-eight nobles and the two kings. This body functioned as a criminal court in times of peace. In times of war one of the kings was chosen commander-in-chief, and his power was absolute until peace was declared.

The Assembly, consisting of citizens over thirty years of age, was allowed to shout its approval of war or peace. Its will in other matters could be overruled by the Council. Five men called "Ephors" were selected to watch the king, because suspicion was always rife among the nobles. They could demand even of the kings an account of their actions, and frequently did so.

Sparta was a small state and its army numbered only 10,000, but "Come back with your shield or upon it", was the parting word of the Spartan mother. They had a marching song like the French *Marseillaise,* the work of their only poet, Tyrtaeus:

> Courage, ye valiants of Sparta, proud offspring
> of citizen fathers!
> Guard well your flanks with your shields, and dauntlessly flourish your lances.
> Think not of the danger of dying; not such is the
> way of the Spartans.

Leisure for this military life was secured by slavery and serfdom. All the other states of the Peloponnesus had been subdued or brought into alliance, except Argos. The estates of the Spartans were cultivated by men in the condition of serfs, called helots; they were bound to remain on the farms where they were born but could not be sold into slavery. Their numbers and spirits were kept down by calculated murders during the hours of darkness. Nevertheless, they served as light-armed troops in war. Other subjects of the Spartans paid tribute in wheat, olive-oil and wine.

No state was more admired in antiquity than Sparta, and none did less for mankind. She bequeathed to the world no art, no architecture, no knowledge and no literature.

Athens, The Progressive State

Athens, the illustrious rival of Sparta, was admirably situated to become the perfect city-state. An oblong rock rising abruptly out of the plain of Attica served for the citadel or Acropolis. The city sprawled at its foot. Two good harbours lay at a distance of four miles. Two small mountain ranges, Hymettus and Pentelicus, furnished pasture for sheep and goats and flowers for bees, and also marble for building stone. The plain itself boasted only a shallow soil, but was surpassed by none in its friendliness to the olive-tree, which feeds upon sunshine and sea-breezes no less than upon the earth. It was good for vines as well but less so for wheat and barley.

Impoverishment of the soil through long cultivation had already become acute by the dawn of written history, and the distress of the tenants was a driving force in the political changes that rapidly followed. These changes pursued such a normal course that no better example of political development is known in the whole history of mankind. Athens became one of Nature's laboratories, where experiments were carried on for the everlasting enlightenment of thoughtful people everywhere. It was there that democracy or "government of the people, by the people, and for the people" was first born. Like all the greater achievements of human society it was an example of the evolution of the unexpected, the unforeseen and the unintended. Wise men did some planning, of course, but the result unfolded itself step by step beyond the vision of the very wisest.

The stages in this providential evolution exemplify every stage in Greek political development without exception:

1. Monarchy, or rule by kings, to 700 B.C.
2. Aristocracy, or rule by the nobles (oligarchy).
3. Law-givers: Draco, 621 B.C.; Solon, 594 B.C.

4. Tyranny, 560 to 510 B.C.
5. A third law-giver, Cleisthenes, 508 B.C.
6. Democracy, rule of the people by the people.

The monarchy was weakened gradually by the usual tendency of the nobles to relinquish their land to tenant farmers and reside in town. There they became more powerful, not only because they lived together instead of being scattered over the countryside, but also because they sent ships to sea and enriched themselves by trade. The kingship was finally abolished altogether, except that a certain official called the King Archon performed sacrifices in his name. There was a polemarch (war-archon) elected to be commander-in-chief. The public business was conducted by a chief archon, and in the course of time six other archons were elected to advise and assist him. The council of nobles was called the Areopagus (Hill of Mars) from the place where they met.

This government of the people by the nobles and for the nobles was given a good name, aristocracy, which means "rule of the best"; it corresponded to the oligarchies of Dorian states under Spartan influence. There was a public assembly where all freeborn citizens met, but little was left to it except the privilege to complain. For complaint there was abundant justification, especially on accounts of debts. Tenants were charged usurious rates of interest, and were often sold into slavery for inability to pay. The nobles were both judge and jury and no humble man could expect justice.

This distress became intolerable by the year 621 B.C., when the aristocrats consented to the appointment of a law-giver. Their choice fell upon Draco, one of their own class, and he made no concessions that could be denied. The chief gains were the reduction of the laws to writing and the prescription of procedure in murder trials. The laws were said to have been written in blood; they allowed the death penalty for stealing cabbages.

The dawn of democracy appeared when a second crisis forced the appointment of Solon as law-giver in 594 B.C. He ordained that a Council of Four Hundred should be chosen by lot, one hundred from each of the four tribes, to prepare bills for the Assembly. From each tribe ten candidates were to be chosen by lot, and from the forty so named the nine archons were to be chosen. This diminished the power of the Archons and the Areopagus, and more and more so as the new Council became accustomed to public business. Other measures of Solon were remedial; debtors were released from bondage and the law repealed under which they had been enslaved. The Assembly was enlarged to admit freemen of small property.

Athens, it may be said, was at this time lagging behind other cities, such as Corinth and Miletus, in trade and commerce. Furthermore, the nobles were divided into factions, and were very hostile to the common people. It was this that gave opportunity to one Pisistratus to make himself tyrant of the city in 560 B.C. He was twice expelled, but returned each time, and altogether, along with his sons, dominated the city for half a century. Though merciless with his opponents, he was just and generous to the people, loaned them money, and created employment by improving the water supply and by erecting public buildings.

His greatest achievement, however, was the development of the public life of the city. He arranged recitals of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, which began a genuine Homeric revival. He made a great event of the spring festival of the wine-god Dionysus, which became the occasion of contests between dramatic poets, and later led to the magnificent development of Greek tragedy. He so embellished the annual midsummer festival of the goddess Athena (Panathenaea) that it began to rival in attractiveness the Olympian Games. Athens became thronged with visitors who spent money in her shops.

The Athenian Constitution

Tyrants, no matter how wise and just, were hated by the nobility, and the last surviving son of Pisistratus was expelled in 510 B.C. This resulted in a brief anarchy and then in complete democracy. With general consent a law-giver was appointed, who proved to be the last, Cleisthenes, 508 B.C. He devised a simple and ingenious system based upon the number ten. The people were divided into ten new tribes, and each tribe into ten sections. Ten generals were elected by ballot, one from each tribe. The year was divided into ten parts and fifty men from each tribe in turn attended to the public business for this period. Ten similar groups of fifty each made up a new Council of Five Hundred.

The new Council of Five Hundred was all-important. It handled all public moneys, let contracts for public works, voted supplies for war, and received ambassadors of foreign states. All laws were considered by it before being passed on to the Assembly. To the latter belonged the final decision in matters of war and peace.

To Cleisthenes is also ascribed the institution of "ostracism". This was to remedy the cruel system of banishing families unfriendly to the government. It provided that the people might write on potsherds (ostraka) the names of any citizens whose presence they considered dangerous to the government. If a majority so decreed by their vote, the person named was sent into honorable exile until recalled.

The Constitution of Athens, as revised by Cleisthenes, was never radically changed. It was even made possible afterwards for the citizen by the receipt of fees to spend a large part of his time in the service of the state. The Athenians did not elect members of Parliament or of Congress to frame their laws, nor did they appoint judges to try accused people and impose penalties. The citizens sat in the Assembly and voted for or against each proposed

law. They sat on juries of 500 or more, and listened to law-suits and passed judgment on the accused. They were both judges and jurors. For this duty they received a modest payment. Any citizen of seeming ability might be chosen a member of the committees that ruled the country for thirty days in turn. He might be elected one of the ten generals to conduct its wars. This was direct democracy. Nowadays, when the British Prime Minister or the President of the United States of America addresses the voters over the radio, we witness a partial return to direct democracy. In general, however, modern democracy is indirect, that is, the voters elect a small number of men to represent them in Parliament or Congress.

Athens was the perfect example of the city-state, both in physical make-up and in government. The make-up consisted in a fortified citadel, the Acropolis, a lower town, a good harbour at a short distance, and orchards, vineyards and gardens round about. The government was by the citizens and for the citizens, acting in person and not through elected representatives. This idea of government of the people, by the people, and for the people, was the great contribution of the Greek people to political practice. It has been very much in the minds of men ever since, and in particular was in the minds of those who framed the Constitution of the United States of North America.

CHAPTER XI

THE RISE AND FALL OF GREEK STATES

Contacts of Greeks and Persians—The Medes and Persians—Cyrus the Great of Persia—Ionian Cities under Persian Rule—Extent of the Persian Empire—The Provinces and Roads—The Ionian Revolt, 499 B.C.

Wars Between Greeks and Persians.—The Battle of Marathon, 490 B.C.—The Battle of Salamis, 480 B.C.

The Little Athenian Empire.—Rivalry of Athens and Sparta.

Wars Between Athens and Sparta, 431-404 B.C.—The Age of Pericles—Thucydides the Historian—Reasons for Greek Disunion—Comparison of Athens and Sparta.

Greek Culture.—Greek Art—The Greek Drama—Philosophers and Sophists—Plato and Aristotle.

Down to the time when Athens became a self-governing city-state or democracy in 508 B.C. the Aegean area had been little disturbed by the strife of empires that simmered perpetually on its eastern borders. All those empires, Akkadian, Babylonian, Egyptian, Hittite, Assyrian and Chaldean, had been essentially land-empires. The Phoenicians, whose ships were most numerous at sea, were not empire-builders; Carthage was their only powerful colony. It was not until the seventh great power rose in the Near East, the Persian Empire, that the threat of expansion from continental lands to the sea and the islands became a danger to eastern Europe.

The overthrow that was awaiting Babylon with its Hanging Gardens was prepared on the far eastern margin of the great Wheat Area. Along the far side of the Tigris River lies the oblong plateau of Iran, where two vigorous branches of the fair-haired Indo-European race had made their homes between 2000 and 1000 B.C. (page 34). The Medes held the northern part and the Persians the south. Like all the lordly Indo-Europeans, they practised agriculture to a certain degree, but the nobles loved hunting wild beasts above all other sports. They had the finest horses

in the whole ancient world, larger and more powerful than either the Asiatic or African horses from which they were bred. Trained to horsemanship from childhood, the nobles hunted the lion with superb Chinese bows, and the sum of their morality was "to ride well, to shoot straight, and to speak the truth". It was this virile, commanding and high-minded race that was to build the last and greatest empire of the Near East.

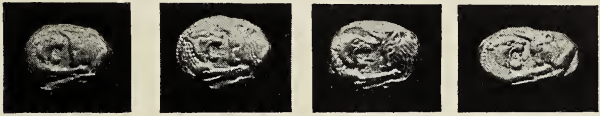


Impression of Royal Seal of Cyrus the Great

The Medes and Persians had long been subjects and pupils of the Assyrians, and the Medes in turn had ruled the Persians. The turn of the Persians came when a great genius was born among them called Cyrus the Great, who was contemporary with Pisistratus, tyrant of Athens. It became apparent very quickly that Cyrus was going to extend his power farther west and farther east than any empire-builder before him. No sooner had he become master of the Medes than he turned their combined forces against Croesus, king of Lydia in Asia Minor, whose capital was Sardis on the Hermus River.

The fall of Sardis in 546 B.C. made Persia a neighbour of the Greeks. The prosperous Ionian cities along the coast of Asia Minor had been subjects of Croesus, and soon

were compelled to exchange his overlordship for that of Persia. King Cyrus did not concern himself with such small matters, but left Lydia and the Greeks to be governed by a viceroy or satrap. In each Greek city a tyrant friendly to Persia was placed in charge, and a tribute of silver was demanded which amounted in all to 400 talents per year ($500,000).



Coins of Croesus Recently Found at Sardis. A Lion and a Bull Facing Each Other. New York.

In the meanwhile Cyrus with his invincible archers and cavalry made swift campaigns far to the Jaxartes River, east of the Sea of Aral, and as far as the borders of India to the south-east. He made an easy prey of Babylon in 539 B.C., and allowed the colony of Jews to return to Jerusalem. Cyrus died about the same time as Pisistratus of Athens, probably in 528 B.C. Three years later his son Cambyses conquered Egypt. Thus the whole of the Near East was embraced within the boundaries of a greater empire than had been. The capital was at Susa on the east bank of the Tigris near the Persian Gulf.

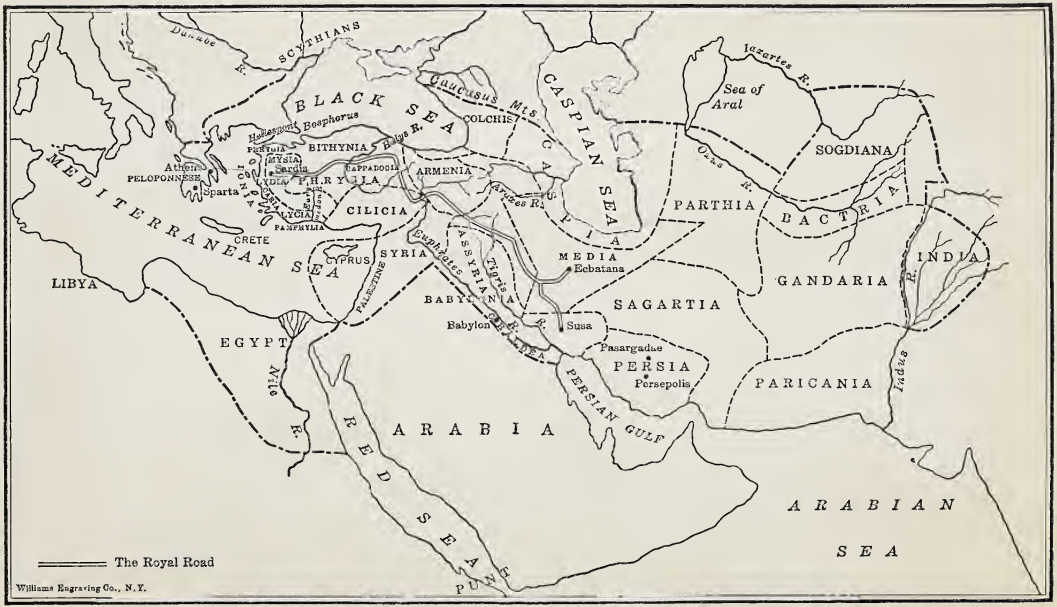
The new government was as much superior to its predecessors as its domain was larger. It was divided into twenty provinces or satrapies, each ruled by a satrap or viceroy. Besides these there were inspectors in each province called the King's Eyes and the King's Ears. For the first time in empires of the Near East there was coined money of gold and silver, a reform that had its origin in Lydia and the Greek cities. All provinces paid tribute in coin, grain or cattle. They were bound together by Royal Roads, of which the most famous was 1,500 miles long, between Susa and Sardis. On this road there were one

hundred and eleven posting stations for change of horses. Of the royal messengers the earliest Greek historian, Herodotus, wrote as follows: "Nothing mortal travels so fast as these Persian messengers. They will not be hindered from accomplishing at their best speed the distance which they have to go, either by snow or rain or heat, or by the darkness of the night. The despatch is borne from hand to hand along the whole line, like the light in the torch-race which the Greeks celebrate to Vulcan."

It was a second Persian genius named Darius the Great who first moved among the Greeks in person. In 512 B.C. he came westward with a great host, crossed the Bosporus into Europe, made a long raid into Scythia (southern Russia), and returned by the Hellespont. The Greek cities had been obliged to furnish ships and to build him bridges of boats by which to make the passages between Asia and Europe and also across the Danube. They feared the Persians less when they had seen them at close range. Thirteen years later, in 499 B.C., all the Ionian cities revolted. In the war that followed Miletus fell after a long resistance, 494 B.C. It was at that time the foremost of all Greek cities, with ships sailing continually to the Black Sea and to Egypt. Athens inherited her leadership, and also the war, because twenty ships had been sent to aid her Ionian kinsmen.

Wars Between Greeks and Persians

It was a terrifying prospect for the little Greek city-states to face a conflict with the greatest empire of ancient times, but destiny and the weather were on their side at first. The first expedition of the Persians was compelled to return because of the wreck of their supply ships while rounding Mt. Athos off the coast of Thrace. Even so, the majority of the states were sufficiently frightened to offer the required tribute of "earth and water" as symbols of submission. Fortunately, the two outstanding states did



PERSIAN EMPIRE, ABOUT 500 B.C.

not flinch. The Athenians threw the Persian heralds into a pit and the Spartans dropped others into a well. This defiance made them the specific target of the next blow, especially Athens, which was nearer.

The second expedition came straight across the sea to Attica and beached its ships in the little bay of Marathon. The Athenians, rather than await a siege, marshalled their little force of 10,000 men on the hillsides overlooking Marathon. They were fortunate to have a general who had served with the Persians when they invaded Thrace, and was confident that his countrymen, armed with spear, shield, helmet, breastplate and greaves, were a match for the Persian archers. His confidence was justified. No sooner had the Persian column begun to march to Athens than the little army descended swiftly upon it, discharged its spears and began a hand to hand conflict. Bows and arrows were of little use, and the short swords of the Athenians did deadly work. Six thousand four hundred Persians fell, and the rest were glad to escape. The Athenians erected a mound over their fallen, only 192, which may be seen to this day. Athens leapt into fame. The poet Pindar sang her praise in words like these: "Gleaming in the sunlight, crowned with violets, fit theme of song, bulwark of Greece, glorious Athens, city divine."



ATHENIAN SOLDIERS

The death of Darius and the vanity of his successor, Xerxes, delayed the third invasion for ten years. It was 480 B.C. before the huge army and navy were prepared. Slowly it advanced by sea and shore, crossing the Hellespont by the usual bridge of boats, cutting a canal for itself through the peninsula of Athos, and trailing southward

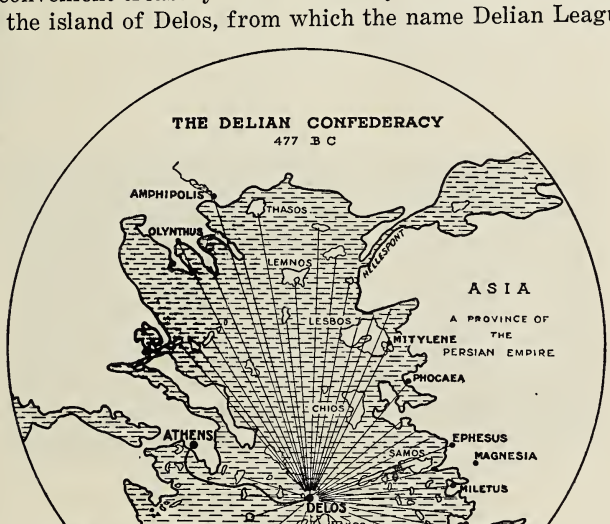
like an inevitable destiny. The Spartan king, Leonidas, eager to match the Athenian glory of Marathon, gallantly sacrificed himself, along with 300 soldiers, at the pass of Thermopylae, but vainly. One Greek city after another submitted, but not so the Athenians and the Spartans.

During the ten years since Marathon the Athenians had enjoyed the good fortune of being led by a real statesman, Themistocles. Yielding to his daring advice, they built a huge fleet with the profits of their silver mines, and began to centre their destiny in the seas. Upon the approach of the Phoenician fleet supporting the Persians, they had abandoned the city and transported the whole population to the island of Aegina. This sacrifice was less costly than a siege, and it signified that a naval battle must decide the issue. The Spartans, who had no navy, preferred to defend the isthmus of Corinth, but Themistocles contrived to have things his own way. The result was the battle of Salamis (480 B.C.), which was so complete a victory for the Greeks that King Xerxes returned home in disgust. It remained for the Spartans and the allied troops to crush the land army of the Persian general the following year at Plataea, 479 B.C. Greece was free. Europe was not to be swept within the scope of the ancient empires of the Near East. This is the significance in World History of the wars between the Greeks and the Persians.

The Little Athenian Empire

After the Persian threat was averted the cautious Spartans grudgingly resigned the leadership of Greece to the enterprising Athenians. It was unthinkable, of course, that the liberty so dearly defended should be weakly imperiled again. The only logical course for free city-states was to form a permanent league of equals for self-protection, and this was done under the able leadership of Athens. The contributions of each in ships or money were justly assessed by Aristides the Just, and the fighting was no less ably

conducted by Cimon, son of Miltiades. The Hellespont was seized and protected by a garrison, and every city still remaining in Persian hands from north to south was redeemed. More than 200 cities were brought into the League. A convenient treasury was afforded by the temple of Apollo on the island of Delos, from which the name Delian League



or Confederacy was adopted. Thus the Aegean became a little Greek sea.

Great changes were, in the meanwhile, taking place in Athens. Themistocles had persuaded the citizens to forsake all private tasks and turn out to rebuild the walls destroyed by the Persians. They also fortified the harbour called the Piraeus. A new town sprang up there, laid out on a checker-board plan, perhaps the first of its kind in the

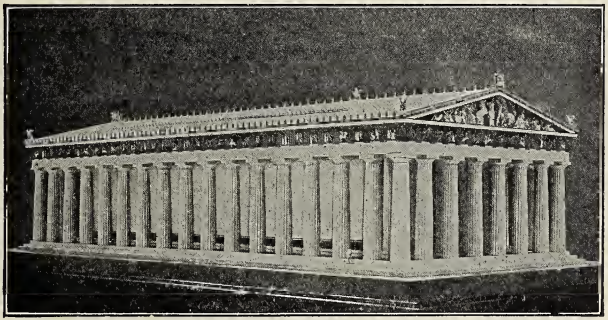
world. Merchants and artisans flocked in from other towns to profit by the great sums of money released to circulation through shipbuilding.

Only a few years passed before the Athenians found an excuse to turn the Delian League into a little Athenian Empire. As the threat from Persia began to pass, the allies were less willing to pay their tribute, and some attempted to withdraw from the League. They were promptly restrained by force, Naxos in 469 and Thasos in 463 B.C. Between 459 and 454 B.C. the Athenians felt themselves strong enough to send 250 ships to aid in driving the Persians out of Cyprus and Egypt. The loss of this fleet seemed to justify the transfer of the treasury of the League to the safer protection of Athens, but after this was done the funds were completely at the disposal of the Athenian Assembly. The league of equals had become a dead letter.

The Spartans in the meanwhile had not been idle. It was their aim to make themselves as strong by land as Athens by sea, and this rivalry was doomed to destroy the two outstanding cities and their allies. It also destroyed all prospect of the Greek race ever becoming a united nation. City-states, history teaches us, almost never build nations. Small states are more jealous than large ones. There were too many island cities in Greece and too many cities in small valleys of the mainland. The numerous small mountain ranges divided the country into so many small parcels of land that the feeling of independence overcame all tendency to union.

It has often been suggested that religion might have united the Greeks, but there is only one occasion in history when religion effectively united nations in a large way. This was in the Middle Ages, when the Christian nations of Europe joined together against the Moslems in the Crusades (page 265). The Greeks were never ruled by priests. They united once in four years to celebrate the Olympian Games, but this had no effect upon politics. The states

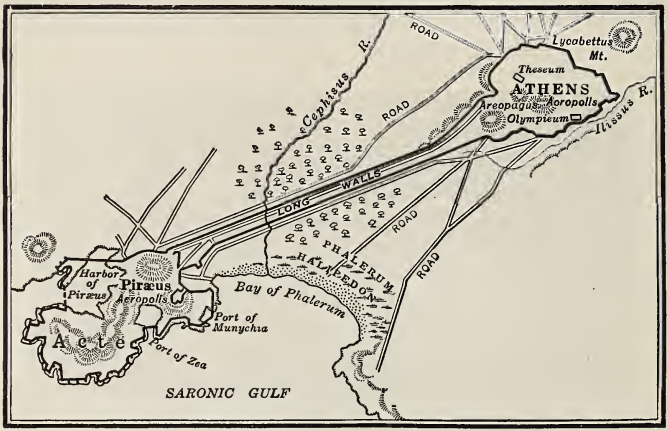
neighbouring upon the famous temple of Apollo at Delphi formed a league to manage the temple property, but neither did this become a political league. The truth is that the Greeks made poetry and art out of religion, not politics. They glorified their gods with beautiful buildings, statues, hymns, and numberless legends. The ideal of popular government that was born in their city-states was far more the result of the cheapness of metals and the increase of sea-trade than of religion.



THE PARTHENON. MODEL IN METROPOLITAN MUSEUM, NEW YORK

The particular period to which men have always looked back as the greatest triumph of democracy was the age of Pericles, from about 454 to 429 B.C. During this epoch the Athenian state and the little Empire were really ruled by Athenians sitting in the Assembly and guided by Pericles. "He alone of all speakers left his sting in his hearers," wrote a contemporary poet. He was an aristocrat, austere in manner and disinclined to mingle with the crowd, but when he came before the Assembly, "persuasion sat upon his lips." Frequent mistakes did not destroy his power. He failed to unite the Greeks by land against Sparta. The failure of the costly expedition to Cyprus and Egypt was forgiven. This might have been different if the city had

not been prospering. Sacks of silver coin were piled up in the treasury as tribute money of the allies. Multitudes from all parts were thronging the city to attend the festivals and the dramatic contests. The harbours were crowded with ships. Long walls had been built to connect the city with the harbours and the Piraeus.



PIRAEUS AND ATHENS, SHOWING THE LONG WALLS

WAR BETWEEN ATHENS AND SPARTA, 431-404 B.C.

In the midst of this wealth and splendour the war that ruined Greece, the so-called Peloponnesian War, had its origin in an obscure quarrel between two colonies of Corinth in the Adriatic Sea. It is the first war in all history of which we possess an accurate and reliable account, the work of Thucydides, whom some have believed to be the greatest of all historians. He hoped that his account of it would be "a treasure for all time", which it is. He tells of the deep-seated jealousies of Spartans and Athenians, and how all the states aligned themselves on the side of the one or the other, Dorians with Spartans, Ionians with Athens. Sparta

was strong by land, Athens by sea, ill-matched antagonists, but the resources of both were at their peak. It was bound to be a long war, and it actually lasted for a generation. Though Thucydides knew nothing of World History, he really described a World War on a small scale.

Both governments at first moved cautiously. The plan of both was to wear down their opponents. Athenian fleets laid waste the coasts of the Peloponnesus, and Spartan armies devastated the farms of Attica. The Athenians, obeying Pericles, concentrated the population within the walls, feeling sure of being able to feed themselves by stores of food brought from overseas. From the sea, however, came pestilence in the second year, probably the bubonic plague. Medical science was helpless, and the streets and encampments were soon littered with men, women and children, perishing in a hideous agony of fever and thirst. The great man himself fell a victim. The Assembly became possessed by a wicked mood the next year, 428 B.C., and condemned to death the whole population of Lesbos for revolting. It repented the next day and a swift trireme was despatched with the revoking order just in time to stop the swords of the executioners.

The brilliant narrative of Thucydides tempts the reader to believe this war of greater consequence than it was. Only the repulse of Persia is important among the Greek wars. Suffice it to say that Athens and Sparta fought to exhaustion, and that Athens was even defeated by sea at Aegospotami in 404 B.C. This was the end of her little empire and her long walls. Her intellectual influence was not diminished. It is often the defeated races that exert the more lasting influence upon mankind. Christianity was a legacy of a defeated race.

Greek Culture

The Greeks were the greatest middlemen of culture in all time. They adopted the use of gold and silver coins from the Lydians of Asia Minor, but they beautified the

designs and passed on the use of coinage to all western races. They adopted the use of stone columns from the Egyptians, but they beautified the proportions and developed the use of capitals. Their three forms of column, Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian, have become standard elements of architecture in all western countries.

The story of sculpture is similar. The austere and rigid statues of the Egyptians furnished the starting point



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

FIGURINES OF TERRA-COTTA FROM TANAGRA IN BOEOTIA.

THE FIRST LADY IS LOOKING AT AN APPLE, THE THIRD IS BUYING FRUIT, THE FOURTH AMUSES HERSELF WITH A TAME BIRD

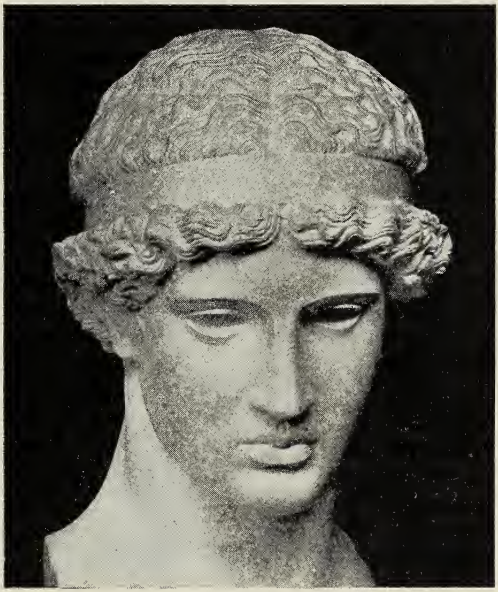
for Greek sculptors, but they speedily worked their way to the free expression of muscular action and emotion. The Greek gods were very human, and the Greek heroes were very godlike. Consequently, it is sometimes difficult to say whether a given statue represents a god or a man. The Greeks thought the body of a young athlete the most beautiful thing in the world, and they looked upon the victors in the Olympian Games as almost divine. This admiration of the perfect human form exerted a very wholesome effect upon art, restraining it from the absurd and the grotesque.

There are centaurs in Greek art, a combination of a horse and a man, but such subjects are rare. In general the monstrous conceptions of the Egyptians, Phoenicians


ILLYRIS
Epidamnus
Aegae
Pella
MACEDON
LYNCESTIS
ORESTIS
CHAONIANS
MOLOSSIS
ATHAMANES
CAMPHAEAN MTS.
Methone
Pydna
CHALCIDICE
Olynthus
Potidaea
Thermaic Gulf
Olympus Mt.
PELAGONIA
Peneus R.
Ossa Mt.
THRACE
EPIRUS
Dodona
CORCYRA
NORTHERN PINDUS MTS.
THESSALIOTIS
Larissa
THESSALY
Cynoscephalae
Mt. Pagasae
Pharsalus
Pagasaean Gulf
Pelion Mt.
Iolcus
MAGNESIA
PERRHAEBIA
DOLOPIA
PHTHIOTIS
GREECE
Lamia
Thermopylae
Artemisium
Euripus
Malian Gulf
Spercheus R.
AMBRACIA
Ambracia
AMPHILOCHIANS
Ambracian Gulf
Anactorium
LEUCAS
CENTRAL AETOLIA
AENIS
PHOCIS
Amphissa
Parnassus Mt.
Delphi
Crisa
LOCRIS
Cirrha
Corinthian Gulf
Pleuron
Naupactus
ITHACA
CEPHALLENIA
Aegium
ACHAEA
Pellene
Sicyon
Corinth
Isthmus of Corinth
Saronic Gulf
SALAMIS
ATTICA
Eleusis
Megara
Chalcis
Euripus
Thebes
Helicon Mt.
Parnes Mt.
Phyle
Oenoe
Panopeus
Elis
ELIS
ZACYNTHUS
PISATIS
Alpheus R.
Olympia
ARCADIA
Mantinea
Nemea
Mycenae
Epidaurus
Argina
Argolic Gulf
ARGOLIS
Argos
Tegea
Lepreum
Megalopolis
Mt. Ithome
Messene
LACEDAEMON
MESSENIA
SPARTA
Parnon Mts.
Pylos
Sphacteria
Methone
Taygetus Mts.
Eurotas R.
Gythium
Messenian Gulf
Laconian Gulf
CYTHERA
Black Sea
Byzantium
Chalcedon
Bosporus
Propontis
BITHYNIA
MEDITERRANEAN
IONIAN SEA
AEGEAN SEA


Doriscus
PROPONTIS
BITHYNIA
Cyzicus
Lampsacus
Abydus
Sestos
Chersonese
Hellespont
Scamander R.
Granicus R.
Aesepus R.
Rhyndacus R.
PHRYGIA
Sigeum
Troy
TENEDOS
Ida Mt.
Adramyttium
Methymna
MYSIA
LESBOS
Pergamum
Mytilene
ARGINUSSAE IS.
Aegae
Cyme
Phocaea
Hermus R.
LYDIA
Chios
CHIOS
Smyrna
Sardis
Clazomenae
TMOLUS MTS.
Cayster R.
Erythrae
Teos
Colophon
Notium
Ephesus
Maeander R.
Magnesia
SAMOS
Mycale Mt.
Priene
Myas
TENOS
ICARIA
Miletus
Lade
CARIA
DELOS
Branchidae
Mylasa
NAXOS
Halicarnassus
AMORGOS
Cos
Caudus
ASTYPALAEA
Cynossema Pr.
Rhodes
Ialysus
THERA
RHODES
CARPATHOS
GREECE
FOR REFERENCE
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 40 60 80
Dicte Mt.
Longitude East from Greenwich
26°
28°
40°
38°
36°

and Assyrians are abhorred, such as dog-headed gods, winged lions and oxen with human heads. Such symbolism was foreign to the sane mind and chaste imagination of the Greek. In all the moving and living things of nature he discerned beings with human forms divinely beautiful.



Head of Athena, in Bologna: Phidian Type

In every running spring was a graceful nymph, in every green forest tree a naiad, on every mountainside troops of oreads, and beneath the restless waves bevies of nereids. Boreas, the north-wind, was a dashing charioteer, who drove his invisible team over the face of the earth. The sun was a god who climbed the slope of heaven in a chariot of flame. The thunder was the sound of the chariot of Zeus

(Jupiter). All nature was filled with beautiful, divine beings.

The great gift of Athens to literature was the drama, tragedy and comedy. Both had their origin in rustic dances performed by villagers on circular threshing-floors. The older people would sit on the hillside and look on at the merrymaking. In the course of time seats were carved in the hillside, and the first theatre came into being. A farm-cart was drawn up alongside the threshing-floor and this was the first stage. By and by the village dancers were replaced by a trained chorus, and musicians were retained to supply the melody and rhythm. Consequently a Greek tragedy really resembled modern grand opera more than a play of Shakespeare.

The three greatest tragedians lived in the age of Pericles, namely, Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides. The plays of the first set forth a lofty morality, especially the justice of the gods, like the writings of Hebrew prophets, some of whom lived in the same age. Sophocles is noted for his reasonable views of human conduct. He said himself that he represented men as they ought to be, while Euripides represented them as they were. The latter, however, had great sympathy for human sorrow, and won the widest popularity. Nineteen of his plays are preserved, but only seven each of Sophocles and Aeschylus.

The earliest reflections of human beings take the form of proverbs, which, when written down, are known as "wisdom literature". The Book of Proverbs in the Bible is a good example, and similar collections have been found in Egypt. They occur also in Indian and Chinese literature. Among the Greeks a class of wise men arose who advanced beyond wisdom literature and produced philosophy and science. For example, Thales of Miletus was able to predict an eclipse as early as 585 B.C. He had profited well by knowledge gained from the Egyptians. The first teachers

of philosophy also appeared among the Greeks; they were called Sophists, and offered to ensure success in life for the payment of a fee. Socrates, the wisest of the Athenians, was accused of being a Sophist, but he was really a philosopher. He loved to argue about the nature of courage, piety, temperance, justice and other virtues.



STATUE OF SOCRATES FROM ALEXANDRIA, RECENTLY ACQUIRED BY THE BRITISH MUSEUM

He gave a powerful impulse to human thought by his habit of arguing. No fewer than six schools of philosophy are said to have arisen among his followers. Most brilliant of his pupils was Plato, who taught in a grove called the Academy, and wrote a famous book called the *Republic.* This work describes a socialistic state, where all citizens are soldiers, artisans or rulers according to their talents. It is the ancestor of all imaginary republics like Sir Thomas More's *Utopia,* governments planned on paper, good and bad. The ideas contained in it have travelled around the world, first to western Europe, then to America, and recently to China and India. If Socrates and Plato had never lived, there would to-day be no United States of America as we know them, nor Dominion of Canada, nor Republic of China, nor, if the truth must be said, Union of Socialist Soviet Republics of Russia. After Plato came an even greater man named Aristotle, whose school was known as the Lyceum. He wrote on all branches of know-

ledge, politics, ethics, rhetoric, psychology, zoology, botany and physiology. He was the first man to frame a complete and consistent system of knowledge. The beginnings of modern science are to be found in his writings.



Courtesy National Museum, Naples

DOUBLE HERM OF HERODOTUS AND THUCYDIDES

CHAPTER XII

EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT

End of Spartan Supremacy—King Philip's two Ambitions—The Kingdom of Macedon—Philip Becomes Master of Greece.

Alexander's Campaigns.—First two Battles—Conquest of Tyre and Egypt—Conquest of Persia—Conquests in Central Asia and India—Alexander Becomes a God-Emperor.

The Hellenistic Age.—Divisions of Alexander's Empire—New Greek Cities—Increase of Knowledge—Extension of Trade—Philosophy of Stoics and Epicureans—Rise of the Saviour Idea.

The Spartans clung jealously to the leadership of Greece until it was wrested from them by the Thebans at the battle of Leuctra in 371 B.C. This battle was remarkable because of the tactics employed. Ordinarily two Greek armies would line up parallel to each other and fight it out with spears and swords. On this occasion a body called the Sacred Band was drawn up fifty ranks deep and six in width opposite the Spartan right wing. It was a shock division, and it spread disorder and dismay among the enemy before the rest of the line came into action. The prestige of Sparta was shattered by this one development of the science of tactics.

Greek writers never tired of extolling the genius of the two men by whom this plan was invented, Epaminondas and Pelopidas, but their careers were mere episodes in the march of events. It was one of fortune's tricks that the genius of these two men should have fructified the talents of one still greater. This was King Philip of Macedon. As a young man he had been taken captive and kept at Thebes as a hostage. There his keen mind gathered all the military science of his captors and just as certainly a knowledge of the weaknesses of their race. He returned with two glowing ambitions, first to make himself master of Greece, and then to avenge Greece upon Persia. He succeeded in the first, and his son, Alexander the Great,

succeeded in the second. Thus we are on the trail of genuine World History once more.

The Kingdom of Macedon lay north of Greece around what is now called the gulf of Salonika. Its rude capital lay inland at Pella. The inhabitants were kinsmen of the Greeks and spoke a similar language. They stood to the Greeks as the Medes and Persians stood to Assyria and Babylon. They were, like the Medes and Persians, splendid horsemen, courageous and intelligent, but undisciplined and uneducated; they were the very stuff of which conquerors have been made in all ages. It was Philip's task to train them, and for this task he was amply prepared. There was no popular assembly to waste his time or retard the execution of his plans.

Philip was a man of incessant activity and his kingdom was of the raiding type. He allowed his lawless subjects no time to quarrel. He marched his army westward into Illyria, northward to the Danube and eastward into Thrace. He made a specialty of cavalry, because his country abounded in horses. He was perhaps the first to use them for shock troops. A second innovation was the phalanx. This consisted of a body of spearmen five ranks deep, the shafts being so long that the spear-heads of all projected out in front. The longest spears were three times the height of a tall soldier. This phalanx was the best defensive formation devised in ancient times.

Philip allowed nothing to stand in the way of his plans. To pay his soldiers and buy armour for them he seized the gold mines of Mt. Pangaeus, to the east of his realm. He gradually destroyed the Greek cities along the north shore of the Aegean Sea and he sold the inhabitants into slavery. He made war on the Greeks themselves, and by the battle of Chaeronea in Boeotia, 338 B.C., he became the acknowledged leader of all the states except Sparta. In 337 B.C. he summoned them to meet in congress at Corinth, where

he was elected general of their combined forces in the war against Persia. The next year he was assassinated.

Alexander's Campaigns

Philip's son, Alexander, inherited his father's army, generals, kingdom, and double his genius. With astonishing rapidity he struck west, north and east, serving notice that the obedience due to his father was due to himself. To impress upon the rebellious Greeks the lesson that petty politics were not to be tolerated, he swept down upon Thebes and destroyed it. Within three years he was prepared to begin the war against Persia, which he also inherited.

He crossed the Hellespont into Asia with a small force of 30,000 spearmen and 5,000 cavalry, but they were the very flower of an army accustomed to victory for many years. At the Granicus River, in 334 B.C., he routed the Persian satrap with a loss on his own side of only thirty-four men. City after city was delivered of its Persian garrison. All his work was done thoroughly as he went along.

It was the following year when the second encounter took place near the Cilician Gates, the battle of Issus. As if conscious that what he did would always be talked about, the young Alexander dashed forward at the head of his cavalry, straight toward the Great King himself, whom he espied mounted upon a lofty chariot. By some happy chance an ancient painting, preserved in copy, depicts the moment when he drove his lance clean through the body of a nobleman of the guard, while the king looked on in terror. A few moments later the Great King might have been seen fast disappearing upon a fleet horse, and his army, and even his mother, wife and children, were abandoned to the mercy of the Macedonians.

Alexander did not pursue, nor did he later listen to his elderly generals urging him to accept an offer of the Great King to surrender all the Persian provinces west of

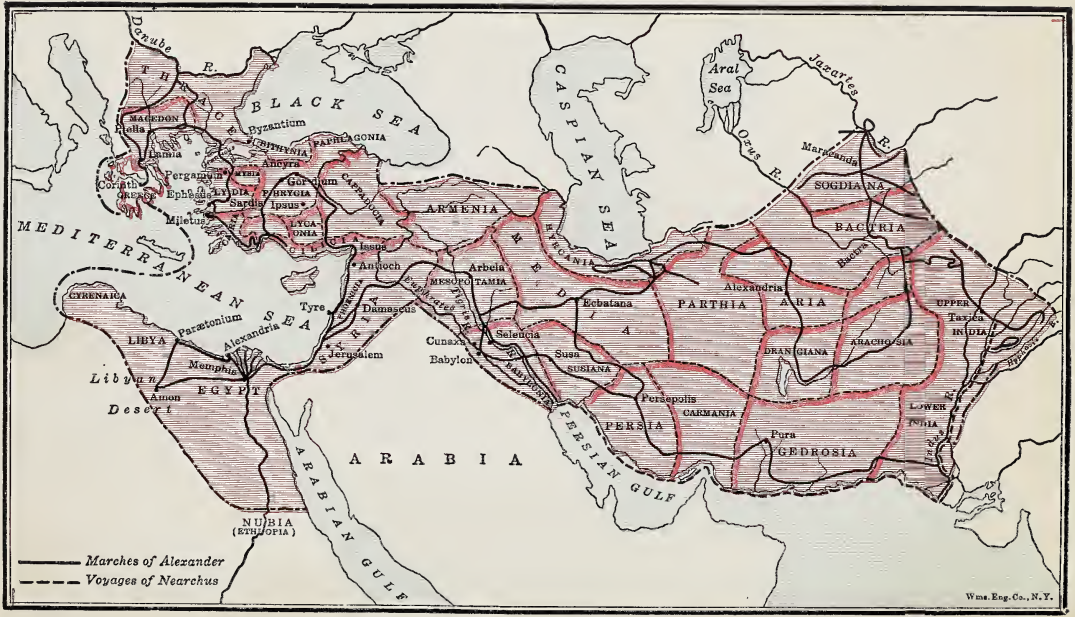
the Euphrates. He proceeded instead to wipe out another old score by laying siege to the ancient city of Tyre, which had furnished ships for Persian expeditions against Greece for many decades. This operation cost him seven months of time, but the wisdom of the delay was declared by Napoleon, who said he "would have taken seven years if necessary." Egypt proved an easy spoil. To provide



Battle of Issus. Persian King in the Centre

for the commerce of the fallen Tyre he founded Alexandria at one of the mouths of the Nile, which became a great port and a great Greek city within a short time.

It was the spring of 331 B.C. before he confronted the Great King a second time, at Arbela, beyond the Tigris, not far from the site of Nineveh. The little Macedonian army defeated a force almost twenty times as large. Alexander went on to Susa and Persepolis, the winter and summer capitals of Persia. A vast treasure of gold and silver came into his hands, out of which he distributed generous rewards to his friends.



EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT

Regarding himself now as the king of Persia, and the heir of all the royal projects, he undertook to repeat the exploits of Cyrus the Great. He went north to Ecbatana, ancient capital of Media, travelled east to the Oxus River and on to the Jaxartes, where he was half-way to China. Turning southward, he entered India, where the heat aroused mutiny among his soldiers. Even so he descended the Indus to its mouth, and returned by another route to Persepolis and Babylon. His general, Nearchus, returned by sea to the Persian Gulf. These victorious journeys consumed seven years. The following year, 323 B.C., his tireless brain still seething with uncompleted plans, he died of an illness in Babylon.

The last year of his life had been embittered by quarrels with old friends of his father and himself. He had taken a Persian wife, Roxana, and was no longer a Macedonian in heart or mind. He took Persian noblemen into his confidence and appointed them to govern provinces. He required all who approached his throne to prostrate themselves, which was galling to his own people. They made plots against his life, and left him no recourse but to order their deaths. They lacked his imagination and they had no sympathy with his superb acting of the part that genius and judgment prompted him to play. He took to drinking heavily, and death followed a debauch. His end was a genuine tragedy. He was only thirty-three years of age.

He had dramatized himself from the first. Upon entering Asia he had stopped at Troy to pray at the tomb of the Homeric hero Achilles, as if claiming for himself the glamour of the earliest age of Greece. In Egypt he had prayed alone far in the desert at the shrine of the god Zeus Ammon, and coins depict him with horns after the guise of that deity. Everywhere he took pains to win the favour of foreign priests. At the last he regarded himself as a royal god, and his example had no small influence in spreading the doctrine of the divine right of kings in the western

Mediterranean and later in Europe. This oriental theory of kingship was a factor in the establishment of the Roman Empire three centuries later. Some ideas are very long-lived.

The Hellenistic Age

The conquests of Alexander had an effect like a cyclonic storm, destroying much that was old and ready to fall, but provoking vast renewals of growth and energy. The three centuries following his death became remarkable for the spread of Greek life and thought to the whole Mediterranean World from Gibraltar to the borders of India. His vast empire was divided among his generals: Ptolemy secured Egypt, Seleucus the region extending from Syria along the Fertile Crescent to Persia, and Antigonus the parent kingdom of Macedon. In north-western Asia Minor a fourth kingdom named Pergamum was founded later. In Egypt and the Near East the transplanted city life of the Greeks took root and flourished as never before.

The art of furnishing a comfortable and refined city life with a form of government adapted to itself was one great legacy of Greece. The checker-board pattern of town-planning, first noted in the Piraeus (page 115), was adopted everywhere. Alexander himself founded seventy cities along the routes of his marches; one of these in what is now Afghanistan, Kandahar, still preserves an Asiatic form of his name. His successor, Seleucus, founded more than seventy, chief of which were Seleucia near Babylon, and more important, Antioch, a new capital on the lower Orontes River, in Syria. The intention was that Antioch should rival Alexandria as a commercial city. In Palestine a group of Greek towns became known as the Decapolis or League of Ten Cities; among these cities Jesus was born and raised.

These trim towns were very different from the old oriental cities, where myriads of wretched huts of sun-dried brick clustered around one sumptuous palace and a few temples. Greek towns were built of dressed stone;

the streets were paved, and running water was furnished by aqueducts. There was a market-place surrounded by shady colonnades. Marble temples with slender columns and gayly painted ornaments gave beauty and colour to the atmosphere. Permanent stone theatres afforded a community centre for pleasure and business.

Of such towns there were a thousand, great and small, but all others were surpassed by such as Alexandria, Antioch, Rhodes, and Pergamum. The Ptolemies of Egypt, the Seleucids of Antioch, and the Attalids of Pergamum vied with one another in attracting to their courts the best artists, painters, sculptors, poets, philosophers and scientists. The works of all the famous writers were copied and circulated through the book trade westward to Spain and eastward to the borders of India. All branches of knowledge made rapid progress, geometry, astronomy, geography, grammar, literary criticism, and especially medicine.

This new knowledge, conveniently offered on rolls of Egyptian papyrus, became so attractive that all races began to "hellenize", that is, they learned Attic Greek, the dialect of Athens, and followed the Greek programme of education. It is for this reason that the three centuries following Alexander's death is called the Hellenistic Age. Even among a conservative race like the Jews, many followed the general fashion, and for the benefit of the Egyptian Jews the Old Testament was rendered into Greek, the so-called Septuagint Version, because it was made by seventy scholars.

There was also a great revival and growth of trade. For the first time silks began to arrive from China. Cottons continued to be brought from India, as also pepper and cinnamon. Arabian incense was distributed to all parts. The Red Sea was thronged with ships laden with the wares of India, Arabia and Africa. Tin from Britain might have been seen on the docks of Alexandria. Silver and copper came from Spain. For the aid of navigation the Ptolemies

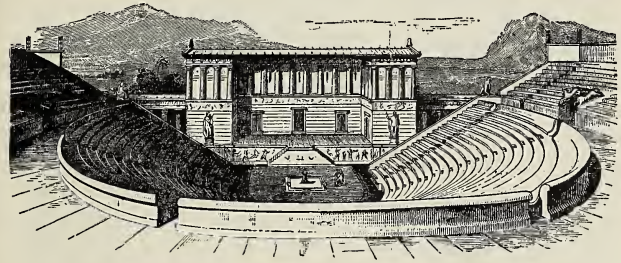
erected the first lighthouse on an island in the harbour of Alexandria; it was 370 feet high and so solidly built that it stood until 1326 A.D.

This universal and somewhat uniform type of city life was accomplished by a certain standardization of thought. All races were tempted to abandon their local religions for philosophy. The common problem of all serious people was How to be happy? To this question the Stoic philosophers answered that the only road to happiness lay in virtue. All sins are equal, they claimed; the man who steals a dollar is as guilty as the man who steals a million. They would be satisfied with nothing but absolute goodness. They also declared that all men were brothers, because they all possessed a portion of the divine fire which was the soul of the universe. This cold and lofty doctrine found wide acceptance among intellectual people.

The Epicureans, named for their Athenian founder, Epicurus, declared that pleasure is the chief good or end of life. Many men wilfully misunderstood this to mean the pleasures of the body, but what Epicurus meant by pleasure was freedom from all the cares of the world and from the deceitfulness of riches, power and fame. He founded colonies of people who practised voluntary communism. Only among like-minded friends, he thought, could men be happy. Friendliness was the bond of union. "Love," he wrote, "goes dancing around the world, calling to mankind to awake to happiness." In order to spread his doctrine of happiness Epicurus kept in touch with his followers in various cities by means of sermons in the form of letters, and this example was followed at a later time by the Apostles of Christianity.

It was during this period, while national religions were losing their power that a new religious idea of universal significance began to gain currency. This was the expectation of the birth of a divine ruler. It was not confined to the Jews nor to Jewish writings. It was preva-

lent in Egypt and Syria also, and in Asia Minor around shrines of the Greek god Apollo. Priestesses of this god were called Sibyls, and their utterances were circulated in writing as Sibylline Oracles. Collections of these were widely circulated and told of "a new offspring descending from the skies," and of a new age of justice, peace and plenty. The minds of men were being moulded into a expectant mood. Christianity arrived into a world that was long prepared for its reception.



Greek Theatre

CHAPTER XIII

RISE OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC

The Last Empire in the Mediterranean—City-States of the West—The Italic Tribes—Simplicity of Early Roman Life—Influence of Greeks and Etruscans.

THE KINGS OF ROME.—Development of City-Life—Expulsion of the Kings, 509 B.C.—Two Roman Consuls—Patricians and Plebeians—Oligarchy and Democracy.

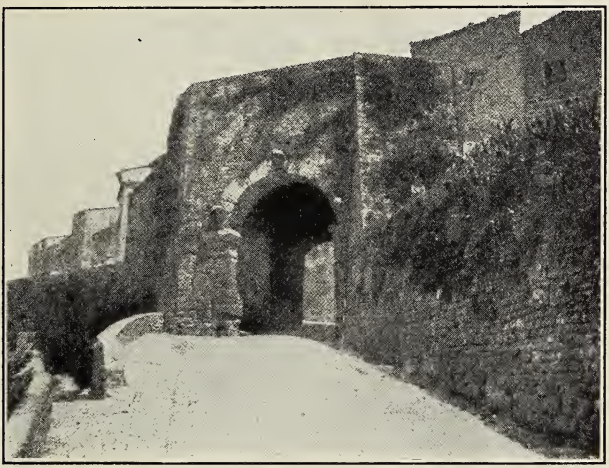
THE POLICY OF ISOLATION.—Virtues of the Patricians—The Struggle for Equality—Laws of the Twelve Tables—The Licinian Laws, 367 B.C.—Growth of the Roman Constitution.

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY.—Rivalry of Romans and Samnites—Conquest of the Greek Cities—Mildness and Justice of Roman Rule.

While the three dynasties of Egypt, Syria and Macedon continued to rule the remains of Alexander's Empire, a new power began to be heard of in the West. This was Rome, a little city-state on the Tiber River. The course of empire was steadily taking its way westward. The last and best of the chain of empires was about to be born. In Italy all the arts and all the knowledge accumulated over the space of thousands of years were to find a new home. Rome was to outshine and outlast all earlier capitals. It was destined to first assemble and then distribute to western Europe the crafts of Egypt and Babylon, the science of the Greeks, the religion of Jesus Christ, and its own heritage of law.

The older civilization of the East came to the West in the form of city-states. About 1000 B.C. the sly Phoenicians founded their lonely colony of Carthage on the coast of Africa, opposite the island of Sicily. In the same era the mysterious Etruscans began to dot the lands between the Tiber and the Arno Rivers with their little city-states. Between 800 and 600 B.C. the shores of southern Italy and of Sicily became beaded with prosperous city-states of the adventurous Greeks. Carthaginians, Greeks and Etruscans contended with one another for the control of the sea until, about the time of the battle of

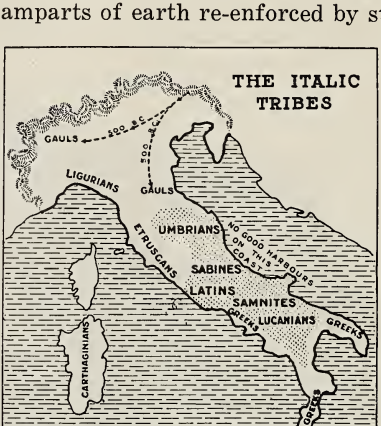
Salamis, 480 B.C., they arrived at a balance of power. The Carthaginians retained the western part of Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica, and the sea to the west. The Greeks retained all parts of Italy from the bay of Naples southward. The Etruscans prevailed from the bay of Naples to the Alps.



City Gate of Volterra, Italy. Work of Ancient Etruscans

The city-state was thus introduced to the knowledge of the hardy farmers and herdsmen of the interior. These comprised a group of tribes of the fair-haired Indo-European race, which for centuries had been descending from the forests and clearings of Central Europe into the warm and wealthy lands of the south: the Aryans into India, the Medes and Persians into Mesopotamia, and the Greeks into the Aegean region. In Italy there were several tribes settled along the chine of the Apennines: Lucanians in the rear of the Greek cities of the south, Samnites back of the bay of Naples, Latins along the Tiber, Sabines behind the Latins, and Umbrians back of the Etruscan city-states.

These proud Italic barbarians had horses, cattle, sheep, goats and swine, but they knew nothing of writing, mining, money or stone-cutting. They lived in villages or in small towns with ramparts of earth re-enforced by stakes. They



Italic Tribes

worshipped the sky-god Jupiter, who was a god of truth, justice and hospitality. They had another god called Mars, the protector of flocks and fields. There were no images and consequently no temples in which to house them. There were no professional priesthoods. The head of each family (*paterfamilias*) acted as priest, and sacrificed for the whole household, women, children, dependants and slaves. He had the power of life and death, restrained only by the "custom of the ancestors" or *mos maiorum*. Old men were greatly respected and met in solemn conclave to rule the clan (*gens*).

Just as the invading Achaeans learned from the Cretans and the Medes and Persians from the Assyrians, so these silent Italic elders were compelled to go to school to the

insistent Greeks and Etruscans. The newcomers were determined to trade, and they had soldiers with shields, helmets, greaves, breastplates, swords and spears to open forcibly the doors of trade. European traders armed with muskets and cannon possessed no greater advantage over the Chinese in the nineteenth century than did the smart Greeks and Etruscans over the Umbrians and Latins twenty-five centuries earlier. The Etruscans conquered both Umbrians and Latins.

The Kings of Rome

Rome, once an outlying Latin town consisting of a group of villages among low hills a dozen miles from the sea, was transformed into a city-state by the invaders. The kingly period was said to have begun in 754 B.C. and the seven kings were popularly believed to have been Latins, Sabines or Etruscans, but it must have been foreign kings who introduced writing, metal-working, stone-cutting, pavements, sewers, temples, images, foreign fabrics and garments, jewels and ivory objects. It was they who gave the soldiers armour and taught them to fight in ranks. It was they who divided them into classes according to property, as in Athens, and organized a regular senate to advise the king. It was they also who built a temple on the hill called the Capitol and enshrined in it the images of three gods, Jupiter, Juno and Minerva.

No city-state was complete without a calendar, colourful festivals, processions of priests in embroidered robes, victims, sacrifices and public games. How otherwise could the gratitude of the common people be won and their loyalty retained? How else could the country folk be attracted to the fairs and markets? Roman writers ascribed the beginnings of these things to the Sabine king, Numa, but this was a pious fraud. They did not wish the people of later days to think their institutions of foreign origin. Even Roman writers, however, allowed that the Etruscan

kings of Rome had established the Roman Forum for a market-place, built temples and shops, and begun the horse-racing in the Circus. They built also the first bridge over the Tiber, so that the land traffic, especially their salt trade, a royal monopoly, might continue without interruption by floods. They also founded the town of Ostia at the mouth of the river. They were interested in trade, especially foreign trade.

Upon all this gaiety the stern old Roman fathers looked with grim disapproval, but no foreign tyrants ever spread their lessons before apter pupils. At last, in 509 B.C., about the same time that the Athenians expelled the son of Pisistratus, the Roman nobles drove out the Etruscan dynasty. In place of the king they decided to elect two consuls annually, who should have charge of the government on alternate days, and could restrain each other. This double rule may be compared to the double monarchy in Sparta; both Romans and Spartans were suspicious of their rulers. Two rulers are safer than one. The consuls were commanders-in-chief, judges and administrators, but the Senate of one hundred elders was always to be consulted. The new government was an oligarchy, an example of "rule by the few", as in Dorian states of Greece. Each consul was attended by a body-guard of twelve men, called lictors. Each lictor was armed with an axe tied in a bundle of rods; the axe was for executions and the rods for scourging. The bundles were called *fasces*, from which has been derived the modern word Fascism, signifying "law and order".

The Roman oligarchy consisted of a group of families calling themselves "patricians" or "sons of noble fathers". They behaved so cruelly towards the common people, called "plebeians", that the latter withdrew from the city in a body in 494 B.C. and proposed to found a city of their own. This danger was averted by the concession that two officials called "tribunes" should be elected annually by the people assembled by tribes (*comitia tributa*). It was the function

of these tribunes to rescue citizens from arrest if seized for payment of debt, the chief grievance.

These two pairs of officials, the two consuls and the two tribunes, stood for oligarchy and democracy respectively. Corresponding to them were two public assemblies, namely, the citizens assembled as soldiers divided into hundreds (*comitia centuriata*), and the citizens assembled by tribes (*comitia tributa*). The former was presided over by the consuls and voiced the will of the rich and the Senate, because it was so arranged that the votes of the poor counted for little. The second was presided over by the tribunes and voiced the will of the people. This division grew into a struggle between patricians and plebeians that continued steadily for a century and thereafter broke out at intervals with increasing violence.

The Policy of Isolation

The patricians were landlords and money-lenders, and displayed the virtues and vices peculiar to such classes in all ancient countries. They charged high rates of interest, enslaved the debtors, and crowded the cattle of peasant farmers off the public pastures. To further their own ends they discouraged foreign trade, surrendered the seas to the Carthaginians and the Greeks, and abandoned the port of Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber. In brief, they made Rome a hermit state, such as Japan became in the seventeenth century. It was forbidden to possess gold and silver, and all mines of precious metals were ordered to be closed. Land and houses were valued as worth so many sheep or oxen; the Latin word for money, *pecunia,* means 'cattle'. Rough chunks of copper, stamped or unstamped, were the only medium of exchange for smaller articles.

The virtues of the patricians were a stern dignity, a strong, though rough, sense of justice, consistency, and indomitable courage. Their ruling passion was the love of the land, both for themselves and for the State. Surrounded

on all sides by hostile neighbours, that is, Etruscans and various mountain races of their own blood, they first fought to defend their crops and then to encircle themselves with a ring of colonies of their own stock. They never retreated from battle and they never gave up land once conquered. They pegged down every frontier with a few hundred or a few thousand Roman farmers, to whom the new land was assigned in small lots. These colonies were an extension of Rome. Never once did they become independent after the fashion of Greek colonies. The new settlers occupied towns but these towns never became free city-states. Their duty was to hold the land safe for Rome. The whole state was anchored to the land.

While Roman citizens were being disciplined into matchless soldiers by incessant little wars, they were not tamely submitting to senatorial rule. In the Roman Forum a struggle equally incessant was waged for equality of privilege. Protection against unlawful arrest was gained in 494 B.C., as already mentioned. In 471 B.C., the popular assembly by tribes gained the right to pass laws. In 451 B.C. the plebeians forced the appointment of a commission of ten men to reduce the laws to writing, which resulted in the publication of the famous Twelve Tables. One of them read, "If any man shall raise a hand against a parent, let him be accursed," which meant that he might be killed with impunity. Another said, "If any one shall break the limb of another and make no reparation, let retaliation take place." This was like the law of the desert, "An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth."

In 396 B.C. the rich Etruscan city of Veii, situated on the far side of the Tiber above Rome, was captured after a ten years' siege and its rich lands divided among the Roman plebeians in seven-acre lots. This success emboldened the plebeians, and in 367 B.C., by the Licinian Laws, they gained the right to elect one of the two consuls. To offset this concession the consul was deprived of his duties as a

judge, and a praetor elected for the purpose from among the patricians.

Because this year, 367 B.C., marks the completion of the Roman machinery of government, it is timely to point out how it grew. The chief principle was the division of power: for example, the power of the king was divided between two consuls, 509 B.C. In 443 B.C. the consuls surrendered part of their power to two new magistrates called censors; these were elected once in five years to draw up lists of senators and voters, and to assemble the citizens and perform rites of purification; they also let contracts for roads and bridges; their term of office was eighteen months. In 367 B.C. the consuls gave over the function of holding court to the new magistrate called the praetor. The number of praetors was increased as the state expanded, to two, to four, to eight, and finally to sixteen.

At any time, if acute danger threatened from within or without, a dictator might be appointed by the Senate. To his authority there was no limit whatever, except that he must resign within six months.

All of the above magistrates were usually patricians, even after plebeians gained the right of election. They stood for oligarchy or at best, aristocracy. The democratic officials were the tribunes (p. 138). The number, at first two, was by degrees increased to ten. After 287 B.C. they could pass laws binding upon all the people in their own assembly (*comitia tributa*). Gradually they gained the right to attend the Senate, to veto its decrees, and finally to summon it. Only when a dictator was appointed were they powerless. Thus the Roman Republic built up two sets of magistrates, the one aristocratic, the other democratic, and the duties of all were well understood and defined. The Constitution was evenly balanced. Moreover, the long struggle had developed keen political intelligence and a sense of justice and fair play. The structure of law was firm because it was slowly erected.

The Unification of Italy

For the first two hundred years the little hermit republic of Rome extended its territory very slowly, pushing back its frontiers and pegging them down with colonies of its own citizens. In the meanwhile the Italic tribe of the Samnites had been learning the arts of the Greeks just as Rome had learned the arts of the Etruscans. The city-state of Capua, back of Naples, was their capital. Capua and Rome were at first friends and then fell to fighting for the supremacy. Rome was Capua's ally against the mountain tribes in the First Samnite War, 343-341 B.C. These campaigns aroused the resentment of the towns of the old Latin League, who thought themselves as good as the Romans and wished to send members to the Senate if they helped them in war. The league was dissolved after a three years' war, in 338 B.C. The Roman Senate was determined to brook no equals.

The once friendly Samnites were now well alarmed, especially by the foundation of Roman colonies on their borders. The Second Samnite War followed, 326-304 B.C. This ended in a stalemate, but was important because the famous Roman legion took shape during the course of it. To manoeuvre in rough country it was found advisable to break up the troops into companies of 120 each (maniples or *sheaves*), five of which formed a cohort, and ten cohorts a legion of 6,000. These legions, armed with long pikes and deadly short steel swords, remained for seven centuries the finest soldiery in Europe. In the Third Samnite War, 298-290 B.C., they routed the combined forces of Samnites, Etruscans, and Gauls. These victories brought the Roman frontier to the edge of the Po valley in the north, where barbarian Gauls had been settled since 500 B.C.

In the south the Greek cities were still independent, but their turn was soon to some. In 281 B.C. the Tarentines grossly insulted Roman ambassadors, an offence that under no circumstances was forgiven by the Senate. Being no

match for the Romans, the Tarentines summoned King Pyrrhus of Epirus to do their fighting for them. Seven times the legions charged in vain against his Macedonian phalanx and its hedge of spears (p. 126). Repulsed and dismayed, they were then routed by dashing cavalry charges and by the war elephants. A second battle the following year had the same result, but Pyrrhus said, "Another such victory and I am ruined." He went on to Sicily, returned in 275 B.C. and was beaten at Beneventum. The Greeks submited to Rome in 272 B.C. By this time the Roman gains in the south had all been made firm by new colonies.

The treatment meted out by Rome to the conquered races of Italy was the most merciful and just that ever was recorded in Ancient History. None were enslaved. All were called 'allies' (*socii*). No taxes were imposed. The new allies were obliged only to furnish soldiers. They received the benefit of Roman protection, which was guaranteed with a consistency never before known. The great Roman orator Cicero said, "The empire was built up by Rome in the course of defending her allies."

CHAPTER XIV

THE FIRST ROMAN PROVINCES

Rome becomes a Mercantile State—Rivalry of Carthage—Wars between Rome and Carthage—The First Punic War, 264-241 B.C.

The First Roman Province.—The Beginning of Empire, 227 B.C.—Hannibal, the Avenger—Hostile Preparations in Spain—Incompetent Roman Generals—Defeat of Hannibal, 202 B.C.

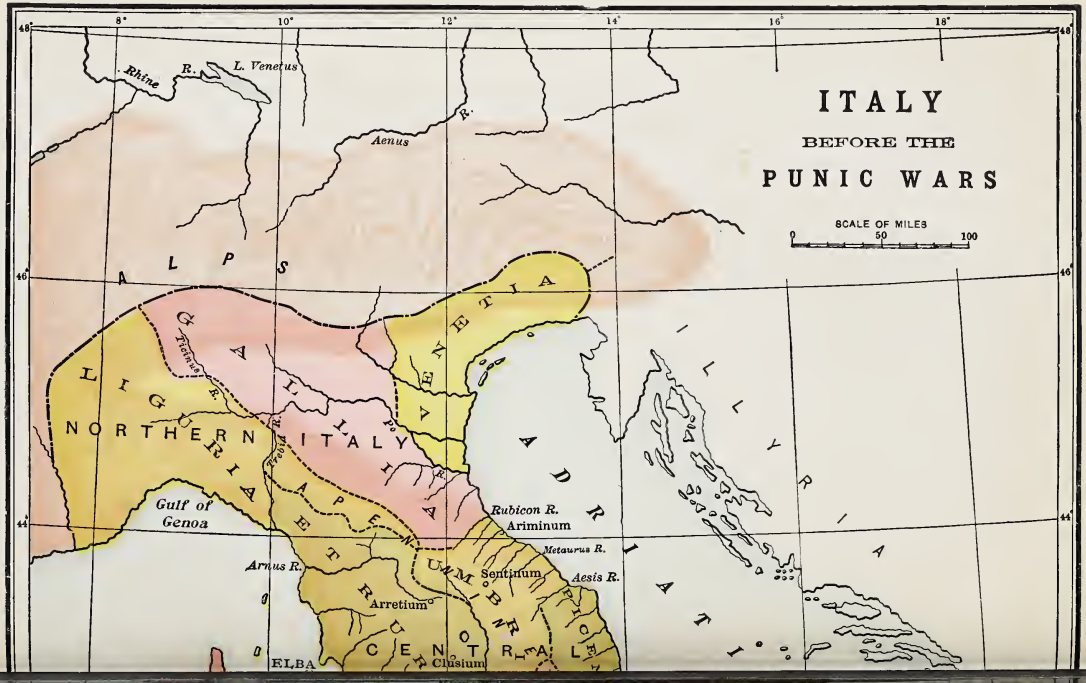
Rome in the East.—The Allies Must be Protected—The Romans not Idealists—Jewish Opinion of the Romans—Destruction of Corinth and Carthage, 146 B.C.—Seventh and Eighth Roman Provinces.

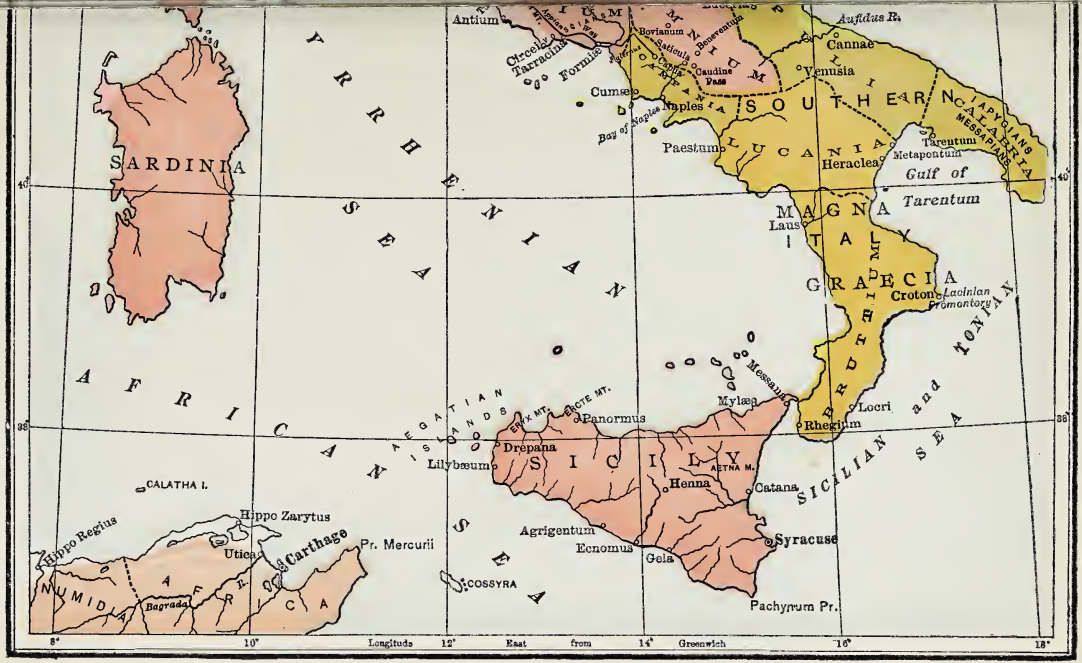
Economic and Social Changes—Roman Roads and Aqueducts. The Rise of Capitalism.

New Agricultural Wealth.—Roman Settlers in Spain—Colonies in Northern Italy—"Bread and Circuses".

The conquest of the Greek cities, complete in 272 B.C., brought the Roman Republic to the parting of the ways. Down to this time it had been an agricultural state, adding land to land, and scorning money and trade. The majority of the citizens were small farmers, cultivating plots of seven acres, and performing much labour by hand. The new allies in the Greek cities were merchants, and the principle that subject-allies must be protected forced Rome to become a mercantile state. Only three years after the above date, in 269 B.C., the coinage of silver was grudgingly begun, the unit being the denarius, worth about twenty cents, like French francs before the Great War. In the course of time this silver piece became current as far as India, and hoards of them are still found there.

The Italian Greeks had fallen upon a depression of trade after Alexander's conquests diverted Greek emigration to the new commercial city-states of Asia, but the strong protection of Roman arms awakened them to fresh activity. This expansion was bound to arouse the hostility of Carthage, which for centuries had dominated the Mediterranean from Sicily to Gibraltar. Carthage was another Tyre, a commercial city-state, ruled by rich merchants. They owned


ITALY
BEFORE THE
PUNIC WARS
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100
8°
10°
12°
14°
16°
18°
48°
46°
44°
Rhine R.
L. Venetus
Aenus R.
A L P S
G A L L I A
C I S A L P I N A
VENETIA
LIGURIA
NORTHERN ITALY
Trebia R.
Po R.
Gulf of Genoa
Rubicon R.
Ariminum
Metaurus R.
Sentinum
Aesis R.
Arnus R.
Arretium
UMBRIA
ETRURIA
PICENUM
ELBA
Clusium
CENTRAL
ADRIATIC
ILLYRIA


SARDINIA
TYRRHENIAN SEA
AFRICA
AEGATIAN ISLANDS
SICILIAN SEA
IONIAN SEA
SOUTHERN ITALY
MAGNA GRAECIA
LUCANIA
BRUTTII
APULIA
CALABRIA
MESSAPIA
SICILY
Antium
Circeii
Tarracina
Formiæ
Bovianum
Beneventum
Cannæ
Aufidus R.
Venusia
Cumæ
Naples
Bay of Naples
Paestum
Heraclea
Tarentum
Metapontum
Gulf of Tarentum
Laus
Croton
Lacinian Promontory
Locri
Rhegium
Messana
Mylæ
Panormus
Eryx Mt.
Ægate Mt.
Drepana
Lilybæum
Aetna M.
Henna
Catana
Syracuse
Agrigentum
Ecnomus
Gela
Pachynum Pr.
Cossyra
Calatha I.
Hippo Regius
Hippo Zarytus
Utica
Carthage
Pr. Mercurii
Bagradas
NUMIDIA
AFRICA
8°
10°
12°
14°
16°
18°
Longitude East from Greenwich

estates planted with date-palms, vineyards and olive-orchards, but their real wealth was stored, after the fashion of the Near East, in the strong-boxes of their town houses, bars of silver and gold, and pouches filled with pearls, rubies, emeralds and other precious stones. Slaves abounded, but the small farmer did not exist. The fighting forces were hired from Greece, or from the wild tribes of Africa and Spain. Capable generals were always to be found among the nobles, cunning, cruel and courageous.



Coin of Carthage, Made by a Greek Artist. Toronto

It was only a matter of time until the light-skinned, and often red-haired, Romans should clash with the dark Semitic men across the sea. The unconquerable tenacity of the Roman farmer senator was to be matched against the stubborn pride of the Carthaginian merchant prince. The first war arose over a squabble between Italic mercenaries and Carthaginians in the Sicilian town of Messana. Rome supported her Italian allies and a war began that lasted from 264 to 241 B.C. This was the first of three Punic Wars, as they are called in Roman History, from *Punicus,* the Latin word for "Phoenician". To combat the navies of Carthage the Romans were compelled to build war-ships, their Greek allies furnishing rowers and crews. Huge platforms were devised, to be dropped upon the enemy's decks for boarding parties. This turned the conflict into a land battle, in which the strong-armed and broad-shouldered Roman farmer-soldiers were easily superior.

After two naval victories the Romans invaded Africa but the expedition proved a failure. They lost two fleets by storms and barely held their own for several years in Sicily. At last, by public subscription, a new fleet was built and a decisive victory won off the Aegatian Islands, 241 B.C.

By this time the Romans had lost 500 ships and 200,000 men, but the plight of Carthage was worse than theirs. A payment of 3,200 talents of gold ($3,500,000) was assessed upon her, a small sum for a rich city. Rome took Sicily and in 238 B.C. seized Sardinia and Corsica, because the opportunity offered.

The First Roman Province

Sicily was the first territory acquired by Rome outside of Italy. For fourteen years the Senate hesitated to



Carthage and Rome—Punic War 264 B.C.

decide what should be done with it. Should they send over Roman settlers and secure it by colonies, as they had done in Italy, or should they adopt the Persian plan of sending over a governor to hold it for the state and collect taxes? At last, after fourteen years, in 227 B.C. the latter plan was adopted. This was the first step towards building an empire. Sicily was the first Roman province, and Sardinia and Corsica were combined to form the second. A province may be defined as a definite unit of territory situated outside of Italy, governed by an official sent from Rome and subject to taxes in cash or grain. In Italy itself the allies paid no taxes.

Exactly two hundreds years after the establishment of

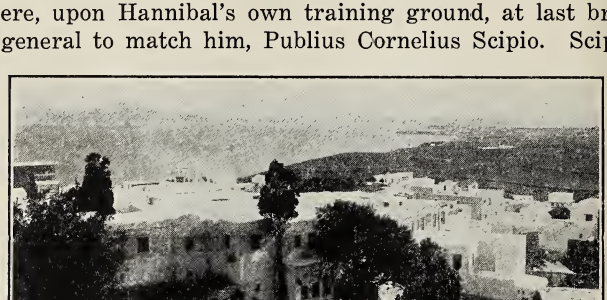
the first province, 227-27 B.C., Rome was to have an Emperor. These two events were outstanding moments, not only in the history of Rome, but also in the progress of civilization in the Mediterranean World, and consequently in the history of mankind. Rome was not only the only city-state to found an Empire; she also founded the most important of all the ancient empires.

The Carthaginians were Semites, and the Semite loves revenge. Revenge is a law of the desert folk. Among the Punic generals who had warred warily against the Romans in Sicily was Hamilcar. After Sicily was lost he went to Spain to train an army to destroy Rome. Like Philip of Macedon, he died untimely, but he left a son of greater genius than himself. This was Hannibal, one of the greatest military geniuses of all time. Educated in his father's camp, he added all the military science of the Greeks to his native cunning, and he surpassed all his masters. By the year 219 B.C. he was at last prepared. Out of levies of flying squadrons of Numidian cavalry from Africa and the fierce native tribes of Spain, he chose a body of troops to whom no tricks or tactics were unknown, owning no allegiance to any but their grim leader, whom they feared and adored. For navies he had no use. Carthage, strong at sea, had been conquered by sea. Rome, strong by land, must be conquered by land.

Knowing the caution of the Roman Senate, he planned that every move should be a calculated surprise. He crossed the Pyrenees and reached the Rhone before the Romans knew that he had left Spain. By the spring of 218 B.C. he had traversed the Alps, which were believed to be impassable for an army in any season. The first battle cost the Romans 30,000 men and the second 15,000. Hannibal avoided Rome and marched to southern Italy, issuing a proclamation: "I have come to restore freedom to the Italians and to assist them to recover the cities and lands that they have one and all lost to Rome." Yet the

allies remained loyal. He had foolishly imagined that the allies of Rome were oppressed like the subjects of Carthage.

Incompetent Roman generals lost 70,000 men at the battle of Cannae in 216 B.C. This helped Hannibal little, because winning victories is not always winning the war. The Romans, if ignorant of military tactics and strategy, were indomitable. They carried the war into Spain and there, upon Hannibal's own training ground, at last bred a general to match him, Publius Cornelius Scipio. Scipio



TUNIS, CLOSE TO SITE OF CARTHAGE. APPEARANCE NOT GREATLY CHANGED FROM ANCIENT TIMES

carried the war into Africa, forced the recall of Hannibal, and defeated him by his own arts at Zama in 202 B.C. The victor was thereafter known as Africanus.

Thus Rome became the mistress of the Western Mediterranean. The little empire was increased by two new provinces in Spain and enriched by silver mines employing 30,000 men. Carthage was deprived of her navy and of all freedom in foreign affairs, but no province was organized in Africa.

ROME IN THE EAST

Victory brought power, and power brought responsibility. It was the old principle, that allies must be

protected, that took Rome for the first time to the eastward. The Greek cities of Italy and Sicily complained of pirates in the Adriatic, and Roman ships and soldiers were sent to exterminate them. This delighted the Greeks across the sea, who hailed Rome as a new protector, but it offended the king of Macedon. By the year 197 B.C. it became necessary to send some legions to put him in his place, and by the logic of events King Antiochus of Syria also drew chastisement upon himself in 190 B.C. Nevertheless the Romans were not looking for new lands to conquer nor new provinces to govern.

It is doubtful if there ever was an imperialistic party in the Roman Senate. The cautious Roman patricians were never in haste to organize provinces, and their actions were governed by principle to an extraordinary degree. They were not idealists nor planners. They were practical, hard-headed men, who dealt with each difficulty as it arose, and along lines that they had always followed. It was precisely because they were so slow in acting, and so firm when once they acted, that the Roman Empire was so soundly established. They were willing that any race capable of governing itself should do so, but failing this, they took the responsibility upon themselves. They gave both the Macedonians and the Greeks the chance to govern themselves between 168 and 146 B.C.

The high reputation of the Romans at this time is attested by a Jewish opinion recorded in the First Book of Maccabees, 13-16:

> It was told him also that whomever they chose to help and that they should be kings, those reign; and whom again they would, they dethrone; and that they were greatly exalted; yet for all this, none of them wore a crown or clothed himself in purple to walk proudly in it; moreover, how they had made for themselves a senate-house, wherein three hundred and twenty men sat in council daily, consulting alway for the people, to the end that they might be well ordered; and that they committed their government to one man every year, who ruled over all the country; and that they were all obedient to that one, and that there was neither envy nor emulation among them.

It was in the middle of the second century that petty politics in Greece exhausted the patience of Rome. An insult to Roman ambassadors at Corinth was punished by the destruction of the city in 146 B.C. In the same year Carthage was taken after a three years' siege and utterly destroyed; a plough was passed over the ruins. New provinces were formed of the territory of Carthage and of Macedonia and Greece. Since Africa was only the fifth and Macedonia the sixth province, it is manifest that the empire was not increasing rapidly.

It is evidence of the still increasing prestige of Rome in the Near East after this date that Attalus III of Pergamum in 133 B.C. bequeathed his kingdom to the Roman people. The Roman Senate accepted the legacy with reluctance, restored to certain subject princes their independence, and retained only the part of Asia Minor fronting on the Aegean Sea. This was organized in 129 B.C. as the province of Asia, the seventh in number.

The eighth province was Narbonese Gaul (118 B.C.), which included only the shore between Spain and Italy along the south of what is now France, ancient Gaul. This was necessary as a right of way for a military road between Italy and Spain. The new road connected up with highways in the valley of the Po, from which the Gauls had been expelled as the penalty for aiding Hannibal. This region, made secure by colonies of Roman farmers, became the ninth province under the name of Cisalpine Gaul about 81 B.C.

Economic and Social Changes

Both the Assyrians and the Persians had maintained highways in their vast empires, but it remained for the Romans to far surpass them in this contribution to trade and communication. The first Roman road, that Queen of Highways, the Appian Way, had been built from Rome to the sea by Appius Claudius in 312 B.C. Its first terminus was Capua, but later it was continued to Brundisium on the

Adriatic. It was in the epoch following the Hannibalic War, however, when the Good Roads Movement really began. A vast network was spread out connecting Rome with every corner of Italy from the toe of the boot to the Alps. Causeways were thrown across swamps, broad ledges for carts were carved along the faces of cliffs,



Appian Way near Rome with Ruins of Villas and Tombs

streams were spanned with solid bridges of masonry, and wheels placed under transportation for the first time. The vehicles most frequently encountered on Roman roads were carts, wagons and carriages drawn by mules; private travellers usually rode mules, but swift couriers were mounted upon horses.

The first aqueduct was built for Rome by the same Appius who built the first road, 312 B.C. In the second century the increase in aqueducts kept pace with the extension of roads. Rome was the first city in the world to have an abundant supply of fresh water for all classes of people. The water descended from springs in the mountains in covered channels by force of gravity. It was distributed to the people from numerous open reservoirs in the streets.

The Rise of Capitalism

In this century of roads, bridges and aqueducts the old Roman prejudice against commerce was further broken

down. The wars against the kings of Macedon and Syria brought to Italy prodigious quantities of coined and uncoined gold and silver. The destruction of Carthage and Corinth in 146 B.C. brought further instalments. This made possible the Good Roads Movement. In private business it made possible the huge country estates. In Central Italy the seven-acre plots of peasant farmers were combined into farms of two and three hundred acres, planted with olive-orchards and vineyards. This could be done only by the rich senators and knights, because olive-presses and wine-presses are costly equipment. From foreign trade the senators were excluded by law, but the knights began to put their money in ships and cargoes. In Rome itself trade was discouraged, but the Greek cities of the coasts developed into lively ports once more. The captains and merchants, however, were often in the employ of bankers who lived in Rome.

New Agricultural Wealth

The question may be asked, What became of the small farmer when his plot was absorbed into huge vineyards and olive-orchards in Central Italy? There are four answers: first, no fewer than 100,000 farmer-soldiers were killed in the first three battles against Hannibal alone, and many more in the campaigns that followed; second, the soldiers who followed Roman generals to Spain never returned; the survivors settled there, populated the country, gave it the Latin language, and made of it a new Italy; third, the expulsion of the Gauls from the Po valley threw open to settlement the finest farm land in Italy; settlers thronged to the new region and in a few years raised Italy's food production to a peak never attained in the old days. Many famous cities of northern Italy to-day, Turin, Milan, Cremona, Mantua, Verona and Padua, date from Roman colonies of the second century B.C.

Unfortunately many farmers lacked the means or the

spirit to emigrate. They flocked to Rome, where there were no industries to hire their labour and only their votes were saleable. These they learned to sell to ambitious politicians in return for feasts and shows, "bread and circuses", as a Roman satirist wrote. They gave to Rome its slums, squalid apartment houses of sun-dried brick and wood, situated in the lower parts of the city near the Tiber. They spent their lives chiefly in the streets. From May to November the calendar afforded almost continuous shows in the Forum and the Circus. Candidates for office gave free feasts and exhibited matched pairs of gladiators, athletic criminals or barbarian slaves, who fought to the death "to make a Roman holiday". From time to time the triumphal processions of victorious Roman generals, with gorgeous display of plunder and captive kings, wound its way through murmuring crowds to sacrifice white bullocks to Jupiter upon the Capitol.

In external appearance Rome remained an out-of-date inland Italian town, shabby if compared with Syracuse, Athens, Pergamum, Ephesus, Antioch or Alexandria, but it still possessed so much manhood, sound sense and justice in its population that the responsibility of governing other lands could not be declined. The fact that Rome was not beautified was evidence that there was no pride of empire.

CHAPTER XV

FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE

Eastern and Roman Hellenism Contrasted—Conservatism of the Roman Senate.

Attempted Reforms of the Gracchi.—Reasons for their Failure.

Contentions of Marius and Sulla.

Sulla as Law-Giver.

Two Empire-Builders.—New Provinces added by Pompey—New Provinces added by Caesar—War between Pompey and Caesar—Caesar's Monarchy, 49-44 B.C.

Caesar's Heir, who should it be?—The Triumvirate—Provisional Government, 43-27 B.C.

But either the love of the task I have undertaken misleads me, or no nation was ever greater or more high-minded or more abounding in noble deeds; nor into any state did greed and luxury find their way so late; nor was the regard for thrift and honest poverty ever greater anywhere; so true was it proven to be, that covetousness was less as wealth was less. Lately the increase of riches has bred avarice, and unbridled license has bred a passion among the citizens for ruining themselves and the state alike through lust and luxury.[1]

It has been told already how the neat and trim city-states of the Greeks were multiplied in Alexander's Empire. These cities, and the comforts and culture that went with them, found their eastern limits in Alexander's province of Bactria in Central Asia. The primeval division between the Wheat Area and the Rice Area still held. Greek sculptors gave a slight impulse to the Buddhist sculptor of India, and a trickle of Greek art even reached the rich cities of the Chinese Empire, but in general it may be said that the flow of Hellenism eastward dwindled in volume until at last it disappeared like a rivulet of fresh water in the desert sand.

Very different was the flow of Hellenism westward. It came westward, not like a deluge in the wake of conquest, but in gradual instalments, slowly but thoroughly overcoming the suspicion and hostility of the conservative

[1]From Livy's *Roman History.*

Romans. The first instalment came from the Greek cities of the south. From Tarentum came the first Greek schoolmaster to Rome, Livius Andronicus, who translated Homer's *Odyssey* into rude Latin verse for Roman schoolboys (269 B.C.). From the same region came Ennius, who wrote Roman History in verse under the title of *Annals*. Latin tragedies and comedies, adapted from the Greek, were grudgingly exhibited after the Hannibalic Wars. At the same time Roman writers began to compose histories in Greek for foreign readers. Greek teachers of rhetoric and philosophy were expelled from Rome in 169 B.C., but soon returned.

The centre of opposition to Hellenism was in the Senate. Grave old senators entertained no abstract theories of government, and looked with suspicion upon Greek political thought. They regularly asked, What would our ancestors have done? The answer to this was usually simple. Always advance, never retreat, secure more land, found more colonies, build more roads, collect no taxes but exact obedience, tolerate no rival power but at all costs defend the allies by land and sea. During the Punic Wars the Senate had become a sort of perpetual War Cabinet, because it could meet at any time, while the popular assembly required seventeen days' notice for a meeting. Thus the balanced Constitution established by the Licinian Laws in 367 B.C. (p. 140) had become a dead letter. The Roman Republic was as much an oligarchy when it destroyed Carthage and Corinth in 146 B.C. as when it expelled the kings in 509 B.C. The Senate's firm and vigorous policy had founded an empire but had also halted the progress towards democracy.

Attempted Reforms of the Gracchi

The first serious challenge to the Senate's supremacy was issued by two brilliant grandsons of the elder Scipio Africanus, Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus, between 133 and

121 B.C. They had been trained under Greek tutors and had studied Plato's *Republic;* they were theorists. Tiberius got himself elected tribune of the people and proposed to divide the public lands among the poorer citizens; to the senators this seemed like communism, and they contrived to have the tribune murdered. His brother was even more radical. He proposed to found new colonies both in Italy and the provinces, at Carthage for example. These proposals were as gall and wormwood to the senators, but his plan of giving Roman citizenship to the Italian allies was offensive even to his own jealous followers. He met the same fate as his brother.

The Gracchi would have founded a rule of the people by the people, with the tribunes at the head of the state. They came too late in history. The people who filled the popular assemblies at Rome were an idle populace, the "bilge-water" of the state, as the Roman orator Cicero called them later. The hardy and honest Roman farmers were living too far from Rome to come and vote, most of them in colonies to the north, even as far as the Alps. There were already too many capitalists in the state for pure democracy, rich bankers of Rome, with hundreds of ships at sea and thousands of business agents in Spain, Gaul, Africa and Asia. To these bankers the younger Gracchus himself entrusted on a contract system the collection of taxes in the new province of Asia, first organized in 129 B.C. This gave the capitalists a hand in the government, with vast power to bribe governors and senators.

Contentions of Marius and Sulla

The Gracchi failed in their plans, but thereafter the Senate was continuously on the defensive until the Republic became an Empire in 27 B.C. The body that founded the Empire proved to be incapable of governing Italy fairly or the provinces honestly, and it bred a succession of enemies

at home and abroad. In Africa a barbarian genius named Jugurtha seized the throne of Numidia, and bought off with gold one senatorial commander after another. At last a champion of the plain people, Gaius Marius, came forward to claim the consulship and a military command. He soon returned with Jugurtha in chains, 105 B.C. In 102 B.C. the same Marius annihilated at Aquae Sextiae (Aix) in southern Gaul a vast migrating host of barbarians called Teutones, and in the following year dealt a similar fate to their allies, the Cimbri, in northern Italy. He succeeded in both instances where senatorial commanders had failed.

Between 90 and 88 B.C. the progressive Italian allies, especially the Samnites, defied the Senate and attempted to set up an independent state called Italia; this was a sort of Italian War of Independence. Their plans were thwarted by the grant of citizenship and by the military successes of Cornelius Sulla. The same Sulla was appointed by the Senate to crush Mithradates, king of Pontus in Asia Minor, a barbarian genius who had ordered the massacre of 80,000 Roman citizens in a single day. The people chose Marius for the same command. Sulla came with soldiers and chased Marius and his friends out of the city. Then he set out for the East. In his absence Marius and his party returned and murdered the friends of Sulla.

Sulla as a Law-Giver

Sulla returned in 82 B.C., destroyed an army of Samnite opponents at the gates of Rome, and had himself appointed Dictator. While he posed as a law-giver he proceeded to murder his enemies, "posting up their names as fast as he remembered them." Any one whose name was posted up on the Rostra in the Forum (proscription) might be murdered with impunity. Their estates were given to his friends. As a law-giver he made some real reforms. He fixed the order in which public offices should be held, which

furnished the state with trained administrators. He increased the number of praetors to eight, and made judges of all of them, which rendered the courts much more efficient. He increased the number of senators from 300 to 600, thus making the body more representative.

Other changes were made purely in the interests of the Senate. All except senators were barred from serving on juries, which meant that men who robbed provinces would be tried by men who had robbed them or hoped to rob them. Tribunes were deprived of all power to propose laws, and were forbidden to address the people from the Rostra. Sulla retired from the dictatorship after three years, 82-79 B.C., and died soon afterwards. Hundreds of pounds of costly incense was burned upon his funeral pyre by venal friends.

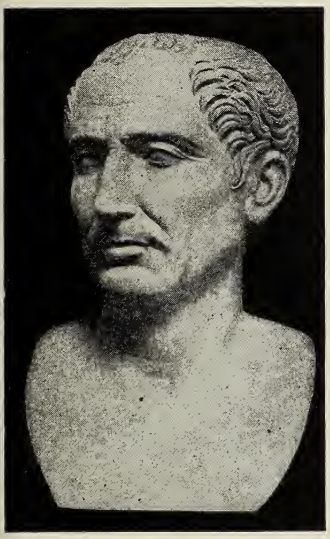
That funeral pyre was also the funeral pyre of the Roman Republic. Sulla's political murders shattered the nerves of the Roman people. Confidence in republican institutions never wholly returned. His laws against the tribunes were soon repealed, 70 B.C., but the old sense of fair play was lost for ever.

Two Empire-Builders

While leaders at Rome were engaging in this see-saw of murder and tyranny, destiny chose out two great men to continue the solid work begun in the previous two centuries by the Senate. These were Pompey the Great and Julius Caesar. The latter rounded off the Empire in western Europe and the former in Asia.

Of Pompey it can be stated positively that he was no more than an exceptionally capable soldier, though also very lucky. It was his fortune to be petted. Sulla gave him high commands in Africa and Spain before he was of legal age for such posts. He celebrated a triumph before he was a senator. He was elected consul by the people in 70 B.C.

before he had held the junior magistracies. In 67 B.C. he was given supreme command over the whole Mediterranean Sea, to suppress piracy. In 65 B.C. he was entrusted with the task of crushing the insolent king of Pontus, Mithradates, who had insulted Rome continuously for thirty years.



Bust of Julius Caesar. In later life he wore a laurel wreath to hide his baldness

It was in Asia that he made his contribution to World History. He drove Mithradates into exile across the Black Sea, annexed to Rome the kingdoms that the cautious Senate had left free, founded new cities to hold the new territory, and deported himself in general with no slight resemblance to Alexander the Great. He followed Alexander's footsteps into Syria, and annexed another kingdom once declined by the Senate. Thus three provinces were added to the Empire, Bithynia, Cilicia and Syria, the tenth, eleventh and twelfth, 64 B.C.

Pompey returned to Italy in 62 B.C., to be insulted by a jealous Senate, but his work had been done nevertheless. From that time forward his fortunes became linked with those of a greater man, Julius Caesar.

Julius Caesar was undoubtedly a genius, but by no means a precocious one. He was forty years of age before he dropped the game of petty politics for a larger role. The

turning point of his life was a journey through Gaul to Spain, where he was praetor in 62 B.C. He saw in Gaul an open field for his ambitions. Upon his return he combined with Pompey and the rich banker Crassus to get himself elected consul for the year 59 B.C. In his consulship he secured by sheer violence and intimidation the passage of what laws his partners desired. Pompey's reorganization of the East was confirmed, and land was voted for his veteran soldiers. Crassus was rewarded by redress for banking losses in Asia. For himself Caesar obtained the two provinces of Cisalpine and Narbonese Gaul for five years.

In Gaul his unsuspected military genius unfolded itself. He checked the migration of a great host of Helvetians out of Switzerland, crossed the Rhine and defeated the German hero Ariovistus. Then he proceeded to conquer the Gauls, tribe by tribe. In 55 and 54 B.C. he made punitive expeditions into Britain. Without permission of the Senate, which he loved to tease, he increased his army to twelve legions. A universal revolt of all the Gauls in 52 B.C. almost destroyed him, and delighted his enemies in Rome, but he emerged victorious. Gaul never required a second conquest. The boundary of the Empire was extended to the Channel and the Rhine. Gaul in the course of time became dotted with prosperous Roman towns and colonies. The usual network of roads was extended everywhere. The native races adopted the Latin Language, and the first foundations of Modern Europe were laid. This is a genuine chapter of World History. No country ever benefitted more than France (Gaul) from its Roman heritage; it was the first nation to emerge in Modern Europe.

The rest of Caesar's life is a tragedy. In the year 50 B.C. the Senate secured the election of two aristocratic consuls bitterly hostile to him. This was the last genuine election under the Roman Republic. The new consuls gave him the choice of surrendering his command or retiring to



EXPANSION OF THE ROM



EPUBLIC, TO 44 B.C.

private life. Acting with his usual daring, he invaded Italy with a single legion. The Senate fled with Pompey, first to southern Italy, then to Greece. Caesar made a swift campaign in Spain, returned, crossed the Adriatic with difficulty, enticed Pompey into battle at Pharsalus in Thessaly in 48 B.C., and won a decisive victory.

Caesar's subsequent campaigns in Egypt, Asia, Africa and Spain, are biography, not World History. The period from 49 to his assassination on March 15, 44 B.C., is known as Caesar's Monarchy. He ruled as Dictator. Elections were held but his candidates were always elected. He reformed the Calendar, which was ninety days in error. This Julian Calendar has been modified only once since his time. His mind, like Alexander's, was seething with great projects when he perished. The immediate plan was the conquest of Parthia, as the land of the Two Rivers was then called. His legions were already waiting in readiness across the Adriatic.

Caesar's Heir, Who Should It Be?

The twenty-three foolish men who so theatrically stabbed Caesar with their daggers on that bright March morning in front of the assembled Senate believed they had restored the Republic. Nothing was farther from the truth. The only question was, Who would be Caesar's heir? This place was immediately usurped by Mark Antony, "the man most talked about next to Caesar," according to the Greek writer Plutarch. Antony was no statesman, but a good general and a superb actor. At Caesar's funeral he made a speech so adroit that the leaders of the conspiracy, Brutus and Cassius, were obliged to leave the city for fear of their lives. Antony speedily gathered forces about him and summoned Caesar's legions back to Italy.

Caesar's heir by his will was his sister's grandson, Gaius Octavius, a boy of nineteen, whom everyone considered a cipher, but destiny had chosen him for the chief organizer

of the Empire. Having been refused his inheritance by Antony, he enticed two legions away from him and enrolled others at his own expense, and within little more than a year he fell heir to seven others through the death in battle of the two consuls. Antony then came to terms, and the two combined with a certain Lepidus to become a committee of three (triumvirate) "for establishing a settled government". They began by murdering several thousands of their enemies, and then crossed the Adriatic to crush the last champions of the Senate, Brutus and Cassius, which they did at Philippi in 42 B.C. Thus began seventeen years of provisional government.

Antony took over all the provinces east of the Adriatic and soon fell under the spell of the greatest royal actress of ancient times, Cleopatra, queen of Egypt. The young Caesar, called Octavianus, took over all the debts of the government, an unfinished war by sea, the unpaid soldiers, and all the hatreds of the aristocracy. Out of this sea of troubles he extricated himself by dint of courage, diligence and good advice. At the very outset he had the great good fortune to find a capable general in Agrippa and a shrewd adviser in Maecenas. When at last the simmering rivalry with Antony came to a head at the battle of Actium in 31 B.C., victory rested with the young Caesar. Antony and Cleopatra committed suicide, and the acquisition of Egypt brought much needed revenues. In 29 B.C. the victor returned to Rome, master of the Empire at the age of thirty-four. In 27 B.C. he resigned his extraordinary powers as Triumvir and assumed others less conspicuous but really more extraordinary. Caesar's heir had made good his claim, and the Roman Republic had become the Roman Empire.

CHAPTER XVI

TWO CENTURIES OF EMPIRE, 27 B.C.-180 A.D.

The only City-State to found an Empire—Caesar called Princeps and Augustus—Meaning of "Imperator".
BEAUTIFICATION OF ROME.—The Pantheon—Augustan Art Hellenistic—Revival of Literature.
AUGUSTAN LITERATURE.—Virgil, Livy and Horace.
THE HELLENISTIC HOUSEHOLD.
THE IMPERIAL CIVIL SERVICE.—The Army remains Roman.
THE FRONTIER POLICY.—Quest of Natural Boundaries.
THE DYNASTY OF AUGUSTUS.
THE PREFECT OF THE GUARD.
GREEK FREEDMEN.—Conquest of Britain—Calamities of Nero's Reign.
THE FLAVIAN EMPERORS, 69-96 A.D.
THE GOLDEN AGE OF THE EMPIRE, 98-180 A.D.—Increase of Towns —Five Good Emperors.
THE DANGER POINTS.

Of some hundreds of ancient city-states, Rome was the only one to build an Empire. At first the citizens possessed only a few square miles of fields and pastures around the city. By discouraging trade and encouraging farming, the Roman Senate expanded the city's area of fields and pastures to include all of Italy south of the Po valley. Thus Rome was an agricultural city-state, and not a commercial city-state like Corinth, Athens or Carthage.

The Empire was founded when Sicily was made the first province in 227 B.C. (p. 146). This brought into being a hybrid government, a republic at home but an empire abroad. The Empire called for an emperor but the Republic called for democracy. Julius Caesar made himself practically king, and his brief rule is called "Caesar's Monarchy", but the nobles stabbed him to death. A provisional government was then forced upon the people, the Triumvirate, 43-27 B.C. At its conclusion the first province was exactly two centuries old, 227-27 B.C.

When the younger Caesar had disposed of Antony and

Cleopatra, he was master of Egypt and the twelve provinces, but he remembered the murder of his uncle; he knew that the man who ruled the Empire would be treading on the hot ashes of the fallen Republic. He moved warily. He lived simply and often walked abroad on foot. He asked to be called Princeps, which means only "the leading citizen of the state". He allowed the Senate to bestow upon him



Sculpture on the Augustan Altar of Peace or Plenty

the title of Augustus, which means "sacred", but the persons of all magistrates were sacred at Rome, and especially those of the tribunes of the people. The Senate had also declared the dead Julius Caesar to have become a god; thus the new Augustus was the adopted son of a deified father. This hinted at the Egyptian or Babylonian belief in a god-king, that is, the divine right of kings, but the young Caesar discouraged any worship of himself, especially in Italy. Offerings of wine and the sacrifice of a little pig might be made to his genius, that is, to the divine spirit that the Romans believed to guard every man from the cradle to the

grave, but any servant was at liberty to do this for the genius of his master.

Caesar Augustus has been called the Founder of the Empire. This is an ill-considered statement. It was the Senate that founded the Empire. What Augustus did was to reorganize the government, a task to which he, Antony and a third man had appointed themselves in 43 B.C. "I restored the government to the Senate and the Roman people," he wrote in his own memoirs. This, again, was not strictly true; it was a noble pretence. There were magistrates as before, consuls, praetors and the rest, but the nominees of Caesar were always elected. In the Senate all his wishes became decrees. He was an absolute master who was allowing the nobles and the Senate to "save their faces."



CAMEO PORTRAIT OF AUGUSTUS CAESAR.
COURTESY OF BRITISH MUSEUM

Augustus organized a standing army, and he took for himself such provinces as required legions on guard continually, such as Spain, Gaul and Syria. The more peaceful provinces were governed by appointees of the Senate. As commander-in-chief of the army he had a special title, namely, Imperator, which is our word Emperor. It was at first merely the soldier's salutation for his chief upon occasion of victory, but in the course of time it displaced the title Princeps. So long as the head of the Empire

remained Princeps, the government is called the Principate, that is, from 27 B.C. to 180 A.D. The change was gradual, as all changes were in Roman history. The benevolent despotism of the Principate became a moderate military despotism in the third century, and upon the accession of Diocletian in 284 A.D. the government became an undisguised despotism, demanding prostrations of all who approached the throne, like the kotow of Chinese imperial courts (pages 314-315).

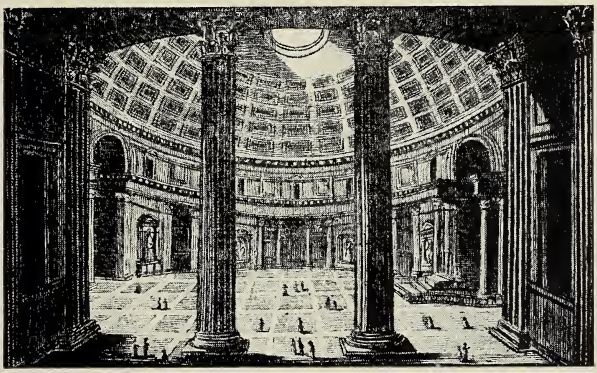
Beautification of Rome

It was part of the plan of Augustus to make Rome a monumental city like Antioch or Alexandria, worthy to command the respect of the whole civilized world. In later life he said that "he had found a city of brick and had left a city of marble." This programme was rendered easier by the timely discovery of splendid building stone near Rome and the exquisite white Italian marble of Carrara near Pisa. Other beautiful marbles, green, pink, mottled and striated, were also imported from Greece, Asia and Africa; dark, blood-red porphyry was brought from Egypt. With these materials more than eighty temples were rebuilt in Rome, also a new Forum, and a public library of Latin and Greek literature.

In the level river meadow known as the Campus Martius the imperial idea was worked out in new buildings. Chief of these was the Pantheon, a temple with a domed roof, like the vault of heaven. If the domed roof was intended to hint that the whole round universe had been brought under Roman sway, this was not at all true. The Empire was more correctly represented by a hall surrounded by columns, the basilica of Neptune, god of the sea. Between the columns were beautiful female figures as symbols of the provinces. This was right; the Roman Empire was only "a ring of lands" around the Mediterranean. Egypt, land of sun-worship, was separately represented by a gigantic

sun-dial of which the needle was an obelisk with a gilded globe on its top. By its shadow it pointed to the hours inscribed upon the dial in the pavement.

All the art of the Augustan age was Hellenistic. Painters, sculptors, architects and engineers were assembled from the Greek cities of the Near East to glorify the new



INTERIOR OF PANTHEON. IN CONTINUOUS USE SINCE 27 B.C., FIRST AS A PAGAN TEMPLE, AFTERWARDS AS A CHRISTIAN CHURCH. DIAMETER 150 FEET

epoch that Augustus wished men to believe he was inaugurating. Not only in Rome itself, but also in the provinces, roads were repaved, bridges repaired or built anew, temples and aqueducts were erected. Colonies, no longer confined to Italy, were founded to accommodate his discharged soldiers, and every town, new and old, began to copy Rome. The checker-board town plan was always employed, and a community centre was afforded by a Forum surrounded by colonnades, temples, and public buildings. This rectangular type of town was, of course, Hellenistic, slightly adapted to Roman ideas.

Augustus wished the public life of Rome to be no less attractive than its outward appearance. He revived all the

old priesthoods, which had fallen into neglect under senatorial rule. Sacrifices were regularly made to the gods, and imposing processions of senators in white togas bordered with purple, priests in embroidered togas, and Vestal Virgins with flowing robes of white became common sights once more. Upon his return from the East in 29 B.C. he celebrated a triumph with a gorgeousness and good taste never known before. Part of his plan was to revive the greatness of earlier Rome, just as Mussolini to-day has been aiming to revive the greatness of the Rome of Augustus.

Augustan Literature

Augustus also knew the value of publicity. His gold and silver coins, designed by Greek artists, were unsurpassed for beauty of design. An extensive search for new mines of precious metals was begun in order to place these emblems of prosperity in every hand. Poets and historians were offered patronage along with artists. The poet Virgil was commissioned to link up the city of Rome and the family of the Caesars with the remote beginnings of Greek civilization in Homeric times; Augustus wished men to believe that Rome was carrying on the great tradition of Mediterranean civilization. Virgil's labours were so successful that his *Aeneid* immediately became the text-book of all lands where Latin was spoken. It spread the gospel of the new imperialism.

Where Virgil's story left off, the tale was taken up by the historian Livy, who extolled the virtues that had made Rome great, the old-fashioned piety, the scorn of gold, the sense of honour, the self-sacrifice, the courage, and the justice. The same themes were elaborated in short lyrics by the poet Horace, who in his *Odes* harks back, like Virgil, to an earlier age, when lyric poetry was flourishing in the isles of Greece. As Augustus understood it, the mission of Rome was to revive, not only the best virtues of ancient

Italy, but also to embellish them with the finer culture of Hellas. He took special pride in a giant altar of Peace, which was erected in the Campus Martius. The ideal of the new age was peace, the famous Pax Romana.

The Hellenistic Household

It was in the age of Julius Caesar and Augustus that a profound change in the Roman household came to completion. The old Roman household had consisted of father and mother, sons and daughters, and slaves. Daughters and slave-girls worked at spinning and weaving together, and fathers, sons and slaves worked together in the fields. All spoke Latin and all were of the same race. This was rapidly changed among the rich when the capitalistic era began (p. 151). Greek tutors, maid-servants, man-servants, cooks, waiters, secretaries, and stewards became the rule. The children were handed over to nursemaids bought in the slave-markets of Greece or Asia. Roman merchants regularly carried on business at home or abroad through Greek slaves or freedmen.

The Imperial Civil Service

While every wealthy Roman owned scores or even hundreds of slaves, no one made more use of them than Augustus. He organized a vast civil service of book-keepers, secretaries, treasurers, letter-carriers and business agents. Almost all of these servants were purchased in slave-markets, but many received their freedom after a few years of faithful service. They handled all Caesar's revenues from taxes, customs duties, mines, quarries and land. There was no money collected so far away that it was not given into the hands of an imperial slave or freedman. When Augustus died he left in his will a list of these servants from whom his heirs might learn the finances of the Empire. At Rome itself the slaves of Caesar made up the Imperial Household. This was, of course, a Graeco-Roman

or Hellenistic household. The model was to be found in the courts of eastern kings of Antioch or Alexandria.

So numerous did these Greeks become at Rome that their tombstones outnumber all others during the first two centuries of the Empire. At the same time all the professional men except lawyers were Greeks. The physicians usually came from the great medical schools of Alexandria, many of them slaves. The professors of the higher branches of learning were usually Greeks. So were the architects, civil engineers, sculptors, painters, decorators, and coin-makers. Only the unskilled labourers were of other races, Syrians for tending herds, Gauls and Scythians for the big farms and the mines. For them there was no hope of freedom.

It must not be assumed, however, that the Roman stock was already perishing. In the Apennines and in northern Italy the hardy Roman peasant still flourished, and was required to furnish all the recruits for the legions. Every military officer, from the lowest to the highest, was a Roman. The middle class of Romans was also numerous. From their number and from the surviving patrician families of Rome were drawn all the governors of the provinces. The Roman stock was still strong, and three centuries were to elapse before the mastery of the Mediterranean was to pass from its hands.

The Frontier Policy

Although Augustus hunted down the assassins of his adopted father and fought his rivals with pitiless severity, nevertheless he was no conqueror. What wars he waged were designed to secure new mines, as in north-western Spain, or to round off the frontiers. Everywhere he sought natural boundaries, the Channel and the Rhine in the West and the Danube in the centre. In the Near East he preferred friendly relations to war with Armenia and Parthia. He added only three provinces along the Danube and one in

Asia Minor. In his will he left the advice to his successors to leave the boundaries where he had fixed them. They might better have done so.

The Dynasty of Augustus, 14-68 A.D.

The Romans were never inclined to idealism, and least of all Augustus. He said that "he had restored the government to the Senate and the Roman People." When he found them hardly worthy of it, he came to the conclusion that he must found a dynasty. In this alone he was not fortunate. He had no sons of his own, and one promising heir after another, whom he chose or adopted, passed away. Upon his death, at the age of seventy-six years in 14 A.D., there was no one more suitable to succeed him than his step-son, Tiberius.

Tiberius was fifty-four years of age and already somewhat embittered by the feeling that he had been passed over several times. He belonged to the ancient and illustrious Claudian family, silent, proud and haughty. It was hard for him to unbend. The people did not like him, because he was thrifty and gave them few shows. Nevertheless he had great ability. Under him the machinery of government worked with smoothness, vigour and justice. The provinces were firmly but honestly administered. There was general prosperity.

The Prefect of the Guard

Soon, however, a danger that men had not counted upon presented itself. It is always so in history. New institutions bring new evils. Tiberius quartered in Rome the soldiers of the Praetorian Guard, which had been organized by Augustus. The prefect of the guard, of course, had access to the Princeps, and quickly became a person of importance, the more so as the nobles of Rome were never friendly to the new rule. This man, Sejanus by name, proved to be a schemer and a traitor. He fostered sus-

picions of prominent nobles in the mind of Tiberius, and persuaded him in his old age to retire to the island of Capri in the bay of Naples, and leave the government to himself. He procured the death of many nobles by false charges of treason and even dared to contrive the murder of the son of Tiberius. When at last his true character was discovered, irreparable mischief had already been done. A never-ending feud had begun between the nobles and the Caesars.

Greek Freedmen

The death of Tiberius in 37 A.D. made room for Gaius Caligula, a madman, who squandered the treasure amassed by his frugal predecessor, and was murdered by soldiers of the guard in 41 A.D. The same soldiers chose his successor, Claudius, and under him still another danger of the palace revealed itself. He was ruled, first by a wicked wife, Messalina, and afterwards by three Greek freedmen of the imperial household, Pallas, Narcissus and Callistus, who had charge of all moneys, letters and petitions. To such Greeklings the proud old families were compelled to submit their pride if they wished to see his majesty. This was a bitter potion to men whose fathers had kept the princes of the earth waiting in the antechambers of the Roman Senate.

Claudius disobeyed the instructions of Augustus by adding the province of Britain to the Empire in 44 A.D.; this was not surrendered until 410 A.D. At home he built the noblest of all Roman aqueducts, the Aqua Claudia, the ponderous arches of which still rise here and there above the Roman Campagna to-day. In 54 A.D. he died of poison administered in a dish of mushrooms by his second wife, Agrippina. The latter's young son, Nero, succeeded.

With the accession of Nero the Greeklings were set aside and the wise philosopher, Seneca, became chief adviser, ably seconded by the robust honesty of one Burrus, pre-

fect of the guard. The prince was only seventeen years of age and permitted his advisers to rule wisely for five years. Then the inborn vice of his nature asserted itself. He seemed to have inherited the cruelty, licentiousness, and madness of several ancestors. Noble heads began to fall. It became a common practice to permit condemned nobles to commit suicide at home, which, being Romans, they did with dignity, opening a vein in the wrist to allow the life-blood to ebb away into a golden bowl.

As if Nero's vices were not sufficient, his reign was marked by various calamities, the revolt of the Celtic Queen Boadicea in Britain, a great fire in Rome, and the last revolt of the Jews. Nero seized the land swept by the fire for the site of his Golden House, but there is little evidence for the legend that he fiddled while Rome burned. Since the public called for victims upon whom to cast the blame, someone proposed the Christians, and many of them were fastened to stakes, smeared with pitch, and set on fire, to satisfy the revengeful spirit of the mob. This atrocity occurred in the emperor's gardens, near where St. Peter's now stands. Nero himself died less nobly than his various victims. Informed that certain soldiers sought his life, he first concealed himself in a vineyard, and later, to escape capture, tried to kill himself. Lacking the courage, he ordered a faithful freedman to assist him.

Nero was the last of all the families in whose veins flowed the blood of the Caesars or their immediate relatives. Most of them had been murdered by their own kindred.

The Flavian Emperors, 69-96 A.D.

Events of the year following Nero's death foreshadowed the drift of future events. The Greek freedmen of the palace had had their day, and the swaggering soldiers of the Praetorian Guard were to find themselves brushed aside by the legions of distant frontiers. The strife of the legions of the Rhine, the Danube, and Syria resulted in the selec-

tion of Flavius Vespasianus. Vespasian was a second Augustus. The son of a thrifty money-lender and a soldier by profession, he was as quick at figures as he was prompt in action. He lived simply, began work before daylight, and scorned luxury. He weeded out thieves from the civil service, replaced Nero's extravagance by economy, stamped out mutiny among the legions, and repaired the highways in all parts of the empire.

Unfortunately, he was already sixty years of age when



Reconstruction of Roman Forum in Flavian Epoch. Equestrian Statue of Domitian in centre

he assumed power and lived but ten years longer, 69-79. His good-natured son, Titus, who had captured Jerusalem, reigned for two years. This brief interval was memorable for the dedication of the Coliseum at Rome and for the eruption of Mt. Vesuvius in 79, which buried Herculaneum under liquid mud and Pompeii under ashes. His brother, Domitian, a spoiled child of the palace, vain-glorious and revengeful, was spared to exercise his tyranny for fifteen years, 81-96, during which the noble families who had escaped Nero's jealousy were almost exterminated. Such was the brief life of the second imperial dynasty.

The Golden Age of the Empire, 98-180 A.D.

It was during the second century of the Christian era that the prosperity of the Empire reached its highest point. The vast system of roads was at its best. The number of trim Roman towns, equipped with paved streets, water-supply, theatres, amphitheatres and public baths, was at its



The Coliseum, seating 54,000; the small Triumphal Arch of Titus, commemorating the Capture of Jerusalem

maximum. Commerce reached its greatest volume and its widest extension. Roman colonists flourished in Africa, Spain, Gaul and Britain. The Rhine and the Danube became Roman rivers. A new group of caravan cities rose to importance east of Syria and Palestine. Schools were numerous everywhere and the knowledge of reading and writing became more common than ever before.

There is no better evidence of Roman prosperity in this century than the extraordinary number of cities and towns. They have never been counted, but the total must run into some thousands. In western Asia Minor alone there were 500. North of the Danube, in the new province of Dacia, the total reached 120. There were 160 thriving Roman

settlements in southern Germany. Almost all the modern cities of England and France are descendants of Roman towns or camps, and the same is true of Spain and Portugal. In Morocco and Algiers, to this day, the ruins of Roman towns rise grimly from the sands in the desert sun; one of them had 50,000 inhabitants. Even east of the



RUINS OF THE FORUM AND THE TEMPLE OF JUPITER AT POMPEII

Pompeii and most other Italian towns became "little Romes" in architecture, as well as in language, thanks to the unification of Italy under the leadership of Rome.

Syrian desert the skeletons of Roman caravan cities remind the tourist of the energy and enterprise of the Roman government during the first three centuries of the Empire.

Excavation in a Roman caravan city like Gerasa, modern Jerash, reveals a straight paved street with remains of a colonnade on either side, a monumental fountain, a water reservoir, a theatre, and temples, the latter sometimes


15° 10° 5° 0° 5° 10° 15°
50°
45°
40°
35°
30°
25°
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
IRELAND
Firth of Forth
Solway Firth
Hadrian's Wall
York
BRITAIN
London
English Channel
BAY OF BISCAY
Seine R.
Loire R.
LUGDUNENSIS
GALLIA
AQUITANIA
Lyons
Trier
BELGICA
Treviri
Treveri
Colonia Agrippina
Rhine R.
CHATTI
Saxons
Elbe R.
Sueves
Alemanni
Vandals
Burgundians
Danube R.
RÆTIA
NORICUM
PANNONIA
Como
Milan
Verona
Aquileia
Po R.
Ravenna
Pisa
ITALY
ADRIATIC SEA
Salona
DALMATIA
Pollentia
Tolosa
NARBONENSIS
Narbo
Marseilles
Ebro R.
Pyrenees
GALLÆCIA AND ASTURIA
Duero R.
TARRACONENSIS
Tagus R.
(Guadiana)
Cordova
BÆTICA
Cadiz
New Carthage
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA
SARDINIA
Rome
Ostia
Herculaneum
Vesuvius Mt.
Pompeii
Brundisium
CAPRÆ
Messana
SICILY
Rhegium
Syracuse
Agrigentum
Utica
Carthage
Thapsus
EARLIER PROV. AFRICA
Cirta
NUMIDIA
MAURETANIA
Syrtis Minor
LATER PROV. AFRICA
Leptis
Scale of miles
0 100 200 300 400 500 600
Boundary at Death of Augustus; beyond this the later additions
Italics—Barbarian races which, after Marcus Aurelius, appear in the places indicated
5° Longitude West 0° 5° 10° Longitude 15° East


25°
30°
35°
40°
45°
50°
55°
60°
45°
40°
35°
30°
25°
S A R M A T I A
Huns
Slavs
Goths
Alans
CASPIAN SEA
Caucasus Mts.
Carpathian Mts.
Danube R.
BLACK SEA
Trapezus
Sinope
PONTUS
CAPPADOCIA PONTICA
Artaxata
Araxes R.
ARMENIA
Philippi
THRACE
Adrianople
Nicomedia
BITHYNIA
GALATIA
Salonica
Nicæa
Pergamum
Ancyra
ASIA
Sardis
CAPPADOCIA
Cæsarea
Edessa
PARTHIAN
EMPIRE
Tigris R.
MESOPOTAMIA
Ctesiphon
Euphrates R.
Seleucia
CHIOS
SAMOS
Smyrna
PISIDIA
LYCAONIA
CILICIA
Tarsus
Antioch
SYRIA
LYCIA
PAMPHYLIA
RHODES
Salamis
Palmyra
CYPRUS
Damascus
CRETE
Tyre
Cæsarea
Jordan R.
Jerusalem
ARABIA PETRÆA
ARABIA
Alexandria
Memphis
Nile R.
EGYPT
Amon
Thebes
Syene
RED SEA
Wms. Eng. Co., N.Y.
from
Greenwich

IRE

transformed in ancient times to Christian churches. The best example of a Roman town in Italy is Pompeii, now largely relieved of the thick mantle of ashes with which it was covered by Mt. Vesuvius in 79 A.D. Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber, recently uncovered, is an example of a harbour town. Timgad, in Africa, is the best example of a frontier camp-city, now much visited by tourists.

Five good emperors, chosen for their merits, perpetuated the good times. These were Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus Pius and Marcus Aurelius. Nerva's short reign, 96-98, marked the beginning of a humanitarian movement. Public money was voted for farm loans and mothers' pensions; the need for this was occasioned by the continual drafting of men from Italy to fill the legions, which created a multitude of widows and orphans. These loans and pensions were continued through the second century, but neither the prosperity nor the manhood of Italy could be restored. The decline of the Empire began at its heart. Recruits for the legions were next sought in the nearest provinces, and then in remoter ones, until at last not only the soldiers, but some of the emperors, also, were semi-barbarians.

It is significant that the next two emperors were born in Spain, and the third in Gaul. Trajan, 98-117, was an ambitious man like Julius Caesar: he beautified Rome, added the province of Dacia to the empire, and in the east made war on the Parthians (page 179). Hadrian, 117-138, called to his side the finest lawyers of the land, who made outstanding contributions to the great library of Roman law, which was to be a guiding light to Europe in the coming days when the legions marched no more. Hadrian improved the government by promoting Roman knights to posts once held by Greek freedmen. These included a sort of Postmaster General, in charge of the posting service on the great roads, and Superintendents of the Food Supply, Water-works and Public Libraries.

Antoninus Pius, 138-161, was a man of peace, and a just, diligent, merciful and conscientious ruler. Consequently there is less to say about him. Marcus Aurelius, 161-180, was a philosopher who, in the tumult of the camps, found time to write his *Meditations*, a book which still survives and has long been a favourite among readers who delight to find Christian sentiments in pagan writings. It was an



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

THE FIGURE OF BRITANNIA ON ENGLISH PENNIES HAS BEEN COPIED FROM COINS OF ANTONINUS, 138-161 A.D.

instance of the irony of fate that a man so devoted to peace should have been compelled to wage incessant war. He was also unfortunate in having a worthless son, Commodus, who misruled the Empire from 180 to 191. His crimes demonstrated once more how difficult it was to raise a good boy in a palace.

THE DANGER POINTS

The prosperity of the Empire was dependent at all times upon the ability to maintain its long frontiers, especially along the Rhine and the Danube. Both ancient and modern writers, of course, speak as if the Romans ruled the world; they really ruled only the margin of it. They were always in fear of the races beyond the borders. Vespasian fortified Vienna and kept a fleet on the Danube. His son Domitian began a line of forts connecting the Rhine with the Danube. Trajan in 104 conquered Dacia (Rumania) be-

yond the Danube, and filled it with settlers from Syria; the Rumanian language, a descendant of Latin, still survives there.

The corresponding danger point in the East was around the eastern end of the Black Sea, and the west side of the Caspian, where Scythians and Sarmatians came through at various times. Against their inroads Armenia served as a buffer kingdom. Trajan thought it better to make a province of it, and did so in 114 with his Syrian legions. He also went down the valley of the Two Rivers and took the Parthian capital, Ctesiphon, but hardly had he withdrawn when the enemy was back in its old haunts. No one knows who the Parthians were; they may have been a Turkish tribe; at any rate they were mounted archers, who rarely came to close conflict, and felt no shame in retreating. Roman control of the Arabs in the rear of Syria was rather more permanent. Trajan's generals organized the province of Arabia Petraea, of which Petra, east of the tip of the Red Sea, was the centre. This was the cross-roads of various routes connecting local caravan cities, and must have yielded customs revenue on incense, pepper, cinnamon, and other spices. Rome, however, lay too far to the west to keep effective and permanent control of caravan routes.

Trajan's successor, Hadrian, showed his concern for the frontiers by superintending in person the construction of the great wall across Britain from the Tyne to the Solway. In Germany he had already completed Domitian's line of forts from the Rhine to the Danube. In the Near East he made peace with the Parthians. In 166 two German tribes penetrated as far as the Adriatic but the Empire was still strong enough to turn them back. The good Marcus Aurelius was then Emperor. He was forced to make continual war along the Danube against the Germans and the Dacians. He was even planning to organize new German provinces beyond the Danube when death overtook him at

Vienna in 180. After that date the Romans were barely able to hold their own. The Empire was already doomed, but its fall was to be gradual. There was too much vigour in it and not sufficient discipline among the barbarians to overthrow it all at once or quickly.

If the question be raised, why were the barbarian races so restless at this particular time, the most reasonable answer would be this, that the vigour of the Han Dynasty in China had repulsed the Huns from the Chinese frontiers of the north-west, and diverted their raids to the plains of western Asia and Europe. The shock of these Hunnish forays seems to have passed from tribe to tribe until it reached the Roman provinces. Of the vigour of the Chinese Empire, however, the Romans knew very little. To them China was a far-off mythical country where silk was believed to grow on trees. So ignorant were they of the interior of Europe itself that the Roman historian, Tacitus, in this very age, the beginning of the second century, believed the region beyond the Baltic Sea to be uninhabited. At the very time that Tacitus wrote those words, the fair-haired Goths were pouring across the Baltic Sea into the valley of the Vistula, and pushing southward before them the German Lombards, whom the Romans eventually came to know full well. At the same time a virile race called Sarmatians, kinsmen of the Persians, was pushing westward across Europe into the valley of the Danube, propelled by pressure of the Huns in the East. The truth is, that all the barbarian races of the unexplored forest lands, pastures and deserts of Central Europe and Asia were unconsciously exercising themselves for expeditions of greater numbers and longer marches in the centuries following.

CHAPTER XVII

THE DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE AND THE GROWTH OF THE CHURCH

THE DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE.—Many Emperors in the Third Century—The Power of Roman Discipline—The Perfect Despot, Diocletian, 284-305—Reorganization of the Empire—Constantine, the Christian Emperor, 306-337—Building of Constantinople—Advantages of Constantinople.

THE GROWTH OF THE CHURCH.—Roman Puritanism—Asia the Home of True Religions—Christianity arrives in Rome—A Religion of the Poor—The Pinch of Incense—Beginnings of Christian Literature—Volunteers for Martyrdom—Effect of Persecutions—Effect of the Building of Constantinople.

THE DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE

Marcus Aurelius (161-180 A.D.) was the last good emperor and, with the exception of his worthless son, the last one to be born of a distinguished Roman family. Septimius Severus (193-211 A.D.) was a Carthaginian whose wife was the daughter of a Syrian priest of Baal. The son of this strange pair, Caracalla (198-217 A.D.) invoked a blessing on himself by adopting the name of the good Marcus Aurelius. All emperors, of course, styled themselves both Caesar and Augustus, irrespective of birth. There was a goodly number of them in the third century, no fewer than twenty between 217 and 284 B.C. They were all more or less despotic, children of the camp, climbing to power by the sword and holding it for two or three years. Of these only Aurelian (270-275 B.C.) need be mentioned, who built the still existing walls of Rome, fifteen miles in circuit. So near was the barbarian danger coming by that time.

The decline that had manifestly set in is a topic endlessly discussed. The preacher has found the cause in moral degeneracy. The statesman has found it in excessive taxation and in the multitude of public officials. The economist has found it in the growing scarcity of precious metals, because

the ancient world used no paper money. However, instead of asking why the decline set in, the question might be raised, How did the Empire succeed in maintaining itself so long? The answer would be this: the Romans imposed upon themselves such a superb discipline, that, so long as the Roman race survived, the legions were invincible. Next, after the Roman race dwindled, the respect it had inspired in all the frontier peoples was so powerful that the marvellous machinery of government ran for another two centuries in the hands of men who were merely converts to Roman civilization.



AN EMPEROR WHO WAS NOT ROMAN BY BIRTH, CARACALLA, SON OF SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS. HE IMITATED AND EXAGGERATED THE ROMAN FROWN

Even in the second century it was no longer possible to recruit the legions from the sons of Italy. In the third century the soldiers were chiefly Germans, Dacians and Syrians. It was barbarian geniuses of these races who were making themselves emperors. Few of them had ever seen the city of Rome before their accession. Such was Diocletian, who never thought it worth while to visit Rome until the end of a reign of twenty years (284-305). He fixed his capital at Nicomedia in Asia Minor near the Bosporus. He required all men to prostrate themselves upon entering his presence, as if he were a god-emperor of Persia. This belief in his own divinity accounts for his determination to exterminate the Christians, who refused, of course, to burn the pinch of incense before his image. His was the last and worst of all the periodic persecutions.

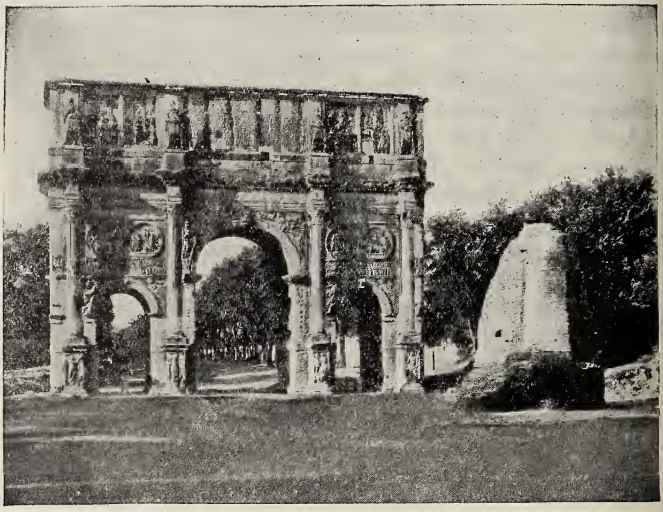
Along with his cruel oriental egotism, Diocletian displayed keeness of perception and vigour in action. He saw that the ancient haphazard division of the Empire into provinces no longer had any meaning. The centre of gravity had shifted to the northern frontiers, and the danger line was along the three thousand miles of frontiers between Britain and Syria. He therefore divided the Empire into four prefectures by lines running north and south. From his capital at Nicomedia, he himself with the title of Augustus ruled Thrace, Asia and Egypt. He adopted a partner, Galerius, with the title of Caesar, to rule Macedonia and Greece. He adopted a partner, Maximian, with the title of Augustus, to rule from the Rhine and the Danube to the Sahara Desert. Maximian adopted a junior partner with the title of Caesar to rule from Britain to Gibraltar. Thus there were two Augusti and two Caesars.

Each prefecture was divided into a large number of small provinces and these in turn were grouped into *dioceses*. Over each diocese was a deputy of the ruler, called a *vicarius* or vicar. Under each Augustus and each Caesar were military officers called *duces* and *comites*, which give us the words "dukes" and "counts". Since even members of the Privy Council of Diocletian were required to stand while in attendance (Latin *consisto*, 'stand upright'), this body was given the name *Consistorium* or Consistory. Thus Diocletian gave new meanings to many words that have survived in Church and State.

In World History the genius of Diocletian has been eclipsed by the greater good fortune of his self-appointed successor, Constantine (306-337 A.D.), who came down from his prefecture of Britain and Gaul to contend for supreme power at the gates of Rome. It was before this victory over his rival, Maxentius, that he is said to have beheld the sign of the cross in the sky along with the Latin words, *In hoc signo vinces*, 'In this sign you will conquer'. Soon afterwards, out of sympathy for the religion of his

mother, Helen, he ordered that Christians should have equal rights with other worshippers (Edict of Toleration, 313 A.D.). Thus the breach was healed which had rendered the Roman Government hostile to the new faith since the time of Nero.

Constantine's second claim to a niche in World History was the removal of the capital from Rome to the East. With



Arch of Constantine at Rome

great good judgment he chose a site for his new city on the European side of the Bosporus, where the Greek colony of Byzantium had long stood, and he called it Constantinople after himself. It was built with much haste out of the plunder of older cities, and was fairly complete by 330 A.D. After this date it is customary to speak of the Western Roman Empire and the Eastern Roman Empire. This seems justified because Constantinople survived behind its strong walls until captured by the Turks in 1453, while

the western line of emperors ceased in 476 A.D. East and West were not, however, legally separated.

Constantine planned better than he knew. All the barbarians north of his new city, hammered by the Huns from Central Asia, were destined to move westward. They sojourned long enough on the eastern Roman borders to gain respect for Roman civilization and even to become Christianized after a fashion. The Visigoths, for example, who raided Greece and Italy, and founded kingdoms in France and Spain, had already experienced Christian ministry (page 261). Again, Constantinople was calculated to survive longer than Rome as a capital, because Rome had more lands to lose. All the barbarians were land-seekers, and the pressure from the east drove them ever westward into Spain, Gaul and Italy. It is preferable, however, to treat of all the mass movements of races in one chapter (page 227).

The Growth of the Church

While the Empire was declining the Church was growing stronger. While the authority of Emperors was more and more disputed, the authority of the Bishop of Rome, that is, the Pope, head of the Church, was more and more widely recognized. The Church was, down to 313 A.D., an almost invisible organization because the government was hostile to it, but it was following its unseen course along every Roman road to the remotest provinces. While the Roman army was converting to Roman ways the boisterous barbarian chiefs, the Christian schools were attracting to themselves the best intellects of the day. While bold and adventurous men attached themselves to warring generals, the earnest and studious sought refuge in monasteries and convents, first in the East, later in the West. The western provinces proved to be the best seed-bed for Christianity.

The old Romans had been the most puritanical race in the Mediterranean World, and the great orator, Cicero, said they were the most religious of all. They scorned all the

sins that are forbidden in the Mosaic commandments, disrespect to parents, murder, adultery, perjury, stealing and covetousness. Family life was sacred, and divorce was almost unknown to them. The gods were revered.

Roman religion, however, embraced none of the elements that we associate with the name: no sacred writings, no theology, no creeds, no emphasis upon sin, salvation, resurrection of the body, judgment after death, heaven or hell. It was the mission of Rome to give laws to Europe, not religion. All the chief essentials of religion came from Asia, and they came to Rome by instalments. Sibylline prophecies (page 133), circulating in Rome in the time of Augustus, familiarized the people with the saviour idea, though the saviour foretold by them was a man-god, a saviour-king, like Augustus himself. In the same age the Chaldeans were turning men's minds to prophecy by reading the future of individuals and nations in the stars (astrology). The Egyptian goddess, Isis, who was said to have raised Osiris from the dead, broached to the people the idea of resurrection.

A colony of Jews, transported to Rome by Pompey in 64 B.C. made men familiar with the Sabbath and the synagogue, with the scorn of images and the worship of a single supreme and invisible god. The crucifixion of Jesus is believed to have taken place in 29 A.D. under Tiberius, and his gospel arrived almost immediately, because Jews were constantly making pilgrimages to Jerusalem, and all Jewish communities everywhere were in touch with one another. It was from the Jewish colony in Rome that Christianity spread to other classes, especially the Greeks, for the Jews in those times were zealous missionaries, some for the old religion, Judaism, and others for its new form, Christianity.

The Roman historian Tacitus called Christianity "a pestilent superstition", and this was the general opinion among the upper classes at Rome. The new faith came from a small, despised province, and it spread in Rome

through the servants' quarters. Even the imperial household of Vespasian (69-79 A.D.) was veined with it, as is proven by the epitaphs recently discovered in a cemetery on the Appian Way. Christian nursemaids sometimes taught the new faith to Roman Children, and so it won a few converts among the nobility. These households became the first places of worship, and the faithful used to assemble there at sunrise under the guise of the early morning call, which was customary at Rome.

Not until the great fire under Nero was any difference observed between Jews and Christians. Then it was discovered that Christians refused to take a pinch of incense from a box and place it on a burning altar before an image of the Emperor. From that time onward to the end of persecutions the pinch of incense became the test. In self-protection some people would perform this ceremony in the presence of witnesses before a magistrate, and ask for a written certificate that they had done so. By producing this they could prove at any time that they were not Christians. The first real persecutions took place under the spiteful emperor, Domitian (81-96 A.D.); the penalty was death because the charge was treason. Emperor-worship, even if it was a mock-worship, became the universal test of loyalty.

Christianity was born into an age of schools, and soon felt the need of books. For the benefit of young Christians, various brief books in the form of rolls were written, describing the birth, life and death of Jesus, and his preaching and miracles. Of these only the Gospels of Matthew, Mark, Luke and John were permitted to survive, because they were deemed the best by the learned men of the Church. All the gospels, as well as the letters of the Apostles, especially Paul's, were circulated singly. The desire to have them all in one volume caused men to abandon the inconvenient rolls and adopt the book form. The Bible was the first book, third century A.D. In 1931 the dis-

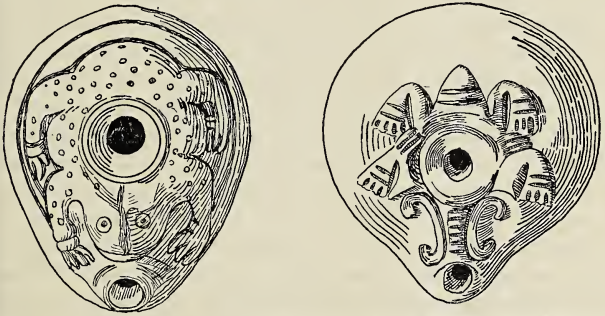
covery of a dozen books, all containing parts of the Bible, was announced from Egypt. These afford evidence that as early as the second century the Gospel and Acts may have circulated in one volume in book form.

Persecutions were not continuous, but Christians were always prepared for it. Volunteers for martyrdom were called for, just as volunteers for the mission fields are called for to-day. They sought the reward promised in such verses as Matthew v. 10: Blessed are they which are persecuted for righteousness' sake: for their's is the kingdom of heaven. In the early Empire no motive was so strong as the craving for immortality. Christians who did not aspire to the crown of martyrdom still wished their remains to repose close to those of a martyr, who, they hoped, would introduce them into Paradise. Their idea of Paradise was a beautiful park with lawns, shrubbery, singing birds, dovecots and peacocks, like the gardens of wealthy men in Rome. Scenes of this kind are painted on the walls of their underground chapels in the Catacombs. The Catacombs are long, narrow tunnels excavated in the soft volcanic rock about Rome, on either side of which the bodies of the dead were placed in cells. Belief in the resurrection of the body caused the Christians to abandon the Roman custom of cremating the dead. They had an underground city of the dead of their own.

Since all societies renew themselves from the lower classes, Christianity grew stronger and stronger as the old Roman families dwindled and the sons of slaves and freedmen rose in the social scale to fill their places. In the second century the new faith followed every Roman road to every town in the West, and every Christian community was in touch with the Christians in Rome. The head of the Church was the Pope, Bishop of Rome, and in those days to be elected Pope was to consent to martyrdom. The good emperor, Marcus Aurelius, was one of the worst persecutors, perhaps because Christians refused to take the oath

in his name as soldiers of the legions. Persecution, however, only increased the numbers of Christians. The blessings promised in the Holy Scriptures overcame all fear. The foundations of the Middle Ages were being laid.

It was greatly to the advantage of the Church that emperors like Diocletian cared nothing for Rome and chose to live elsewhere. This advantage was further increased when the chief seat of government was located at Constantinople after 330 A.D. From that time onwards the ruler of the Western Empire resided in northern Italy at Ravenna or Milan. Already the most important man in Rome was the Pope. The fear that he might invoke the curse of the God of the Christians deterred Alaric the Goth from setting fire to the city in 410 A.D. By this time the Church was in a better position than the Empire to protect its property. The Empire's dwindling claim to universal authority was to be replaced by that of the Church. Neither Empire nor Church realized how small a portion of the inhabited earth was aware of its existence.



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

CHRISTIAN LAMPS OF TERRA-COTTA. The Frog is a Symbol of Resurrection because it emerges from the Ground in the Spring. Second Lamp shows the Frog conventionalized.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE ANCIENT HISTORY OF INDIA

India and China, only Empires of the Rice Area—India and Mesopotamia Compared—Mixture of Races in India.

THE ARYANS.—Four Classes of Aryan Society—The *Rigveda*—Pattern of Aryan Society.

BUDDHA.—The Four Noble Truths and the Eightfold Path—Buddhism and Christianity Compared.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT IN INDIA.—Persian Origin of Hindu Names—Extent of Alexander's Invasion.

THE MAURYA DYNASTY, 322-184 B.C.—Power of Chandragupta.

ASOKA, THE BUDDHIST KING.—His Missionary Activity—Invasions of Greeks, Scythians and Parthians—The Kushan Dynasty.

THE GUPTA EMPIRE.—Invasions of White Huns or Ephthalites—The Great King Harsha—The Chinese Traveller Fa-Hsien.

HINDUISM.—The Caste System—Hideous Practices.

In the previous chapters the story has been told of the series of empires that followed one another in the great Wheat Area that extends from the western border of India to the Atlantic Ocean. It still remains to tell of the ancient civilizations of India and China. These two, and no others, are comprised in the great Rice Area that embraced the lands along the shores of the Indian Ocean and the China Sea (map page 41). Japan is also part of the Rice Area, but no account need be given of it in the ancient period.

India and China comprised two of the four great river civilizations of ancient times. Just as in Mesopotamia, there was a native population living chiefly in villages and devoted to agriculture; the wealth they accumulated aroused the covetousness of roving, fighting tribes from the Horse and Cattle Area of the mid-continent. The successive invasions that followed resulted in a society more intelligent and creative than any of those from which it was born.

India differs from Mesopotamia, however, because it is a closed country. Mesopotamia was open to the west and its culture was carried all the way to the Atlantic. India, on

the other hand, is shut off from the rest of Asia on the north by the loftiest chain of mountains in the world, the Himalayas; the natural direction of extension for its culture was eastwards towards Burma, Siam, Cambodia and the East India Islands; this process actually did go on for centuries, but was checked after a certain point in history by the curious religion of the Hindus, which began to forbid all foreign travel (pp. 297-298). A second point of difference between India and Mesopotamia is this, that India is in the Rice Area, and the labour of cultivating rice in flooded paddy fields is more slavish than cultivating wheat. The men from the Wheat and Bread Area have almost always been more adventurous than those who live on boiled rice. The men of the Rice Area, on the other hand, have usually been more contemplative.

The earliest inhabitants of India were of a negroid type resembling the Australian Bushmen, and communities of them still exist in remote jungles and mountains. A brown race came later from the west, perhaps along the Persian Gulf, and was very probably a branch of the Mediterranean Brown Men. These are still numerous among the inhabitants, the purest specimens being the Dravidians of the Deccan or southern peninsula. Elsewhere there have been strong admixtures of races from Central Asia, which will be mentioned later. The Bengalese, east of India, have closer affinities with the Tibetans north of the Himalayas.

The Aryans

The invaders who settled the course of history in India for all time, however, were the Aryans, kinsmen of the Persians, Medes, Greeks, Romans, and the modern races of western Europe. It is because of this invasion of India from the west that this branch of the human family has been given the name Indo-European. The Aryans must have been a particularly adventurous stock, because their entrance into India is earlier in date than any of the empires

founded by their kinsmen farther west, as early as 2400 and not later than 1500 B.C. They came with their horses, cattle and families, and they came to stay. They made an easy conquest of the natives and then set up their huge households just as their kinsmen did later in Greece and Italy.

They did not come in one huge host, but by instalments, and the arrival of new settlers from time to time made it necessary for the newcomers to move on. In this way they occupied the central part of India around what is now Delhi. This is Hindustan or India proper. They did not penetrate into the Deccan, because this in ancient times was separated from the north by an almost impassable barrier of jungles and mountains.

India proved to be a heavenly country for the lordly Aryans, who scorned manual labour and loved above all other things to fight and hunt. They had no trouble in forcing the Hindus to work for them. The jungles and mountains furnished dangerous game in abundance, and in the course of time the same men whose fathers had braved lions and bears in the mountains to the north were hunting tigers and leopards in the jungles from the backs of elephants. The highest class of society was not, as in China, the scholars, but the fighting men (kshatriyas). At first every head of an Aryan princely household was a priest as well, and made sacrifice and uttered prayers for himself, his family, and his servants, but in the course of time he would allow someone with a better memory than himself to speak the prayers. This second class was to become very powerful in later days, namely the Brahmans. Below them were the merchants and artisans, and in the lowest class the menial servants.

The Aryans, like most Indo-Europeans, were highly intelligent, and often possessed prodigious memories. The proof of this is in the fact that they preserved for centuries a large body of hymns and prayers without the aid

of writing. An alphabet was finally adopted, probably imported by native traders from some Semitic race on the Persian Gulf, and was carried much farther, even into Burma and Siam. The borrowed letters were adapted to the language of the Aryans, known as Sanskrit, and their literature written upon palm leaves. The chief book is the *Rigveda,* comprising hymns sufficient to fill two volumes. In its surviving form it dates only from the twelfth century A.D., but the material is centuries older.

It pictures a society of princes with multitudes of servants. Some live in towns and others still move about with their herds as the fancy pleased them. Like the ancient Romans, they estimate the value of things in cattle. Like Homeric heroes, they fight from chariots. They also build ships, and have a variety of artisans, coppersmiths, goldsmiths, carpenters and others. There was no unity to the government, however, because each princeling loved his independence. Records speak of sixteen independent States and many smaller ones, and all of these taken together were but a small part of the country. The Deccan went its own way, as did also Bengal. It is probable, however, that some Aryans reached Ceylon by sea.

Buddha (543 B.C.)

It was during the period of Ancient History that an event occurred which, more than any other, perhaps, gives to India an important place in World History. This was the birth, towards the end of the sixth century, of the founder of one of the chief religions of the world, Buddhism. His real name was Gautuma, and he was the son of the king of a small realm in what is now Nepal, near the Himalayas. The word Buddha is a title of honour, and not a name, just as Christ is a title of Jesus. It means "one who has attained to knowledge or enlightenment". This enlightenment was said to have come to him one day when seated under a Bo-tree at Gaya in the province of Bihar. He had

abandoned his palace, his feasting and hunting, and his wife and infant son; he had donned the rags of a beggar, starved and humbled himself, seeking the truth of life.

The enlightenment that came to him was in the form of Four Noble Truths: (1) that life is inevitably filled with sorrow and pain; (2) that sorrow and pain come through our bodily desires; (3) that disappointment can only be avoided by "blowing out" the flame of desire (Nirvana, "extinguishing"); (4) and that Nirvana can only be attained by an "Eightfold Path". The exit from the worldly life to the life of knowledge is through a gateway into the new eightfold pathway of life, consisting in right belief, right resolve, right speech, right behaviour, right occupation, right effort, right contemplation, and right concentration.

The result of this system would be to empty the mind, not to fill it. It is even said that it aimed at removing all desire for life, either in this world or in the next. It certainly meant the renunciation of all ambition for wealth, power and fame, and in this respect resembled the teachings of Jesus. It insisted upon respect for all animal life, which made vegetarians of the Hindus; the Aryans, as is revealed in their own *Vedas*, had long continued to be meat-eaters. Buddhism also resembled Christianity in that it became a missionary religion and spread over China and Japan in the north and over Bengal, Burma, Siam and Cambodia, just as Christianity spread over western Europe. It further resembled Christianity in that it led to the founding of monasteries and convents, where men and women might retreat from the cares of the world.

Alexander the Great in India

About 500 B.C. the Persians invaded India, and four provinces or satrapies of their great empire were either part of India or close to it, namely Paricania, Gandaria, Bactria and India (map page 113). The permanent result

of this was to give India its name. The word *sindhu* in Sanskrit meant "river" and survives in the Persian pronunciation as Indus. The word *Sind*, denoting the country around the mouth of the Indus, is derived from *sindhu*, "river". The name *India* was first applied to the country comprised in the upper course of the Indus, now the Punjab, by Greek writers. The Greek historian, Herodotus (450 B.C.) knew no more of India than this part. In later writers the name was gradually extended, and now it is applied to the whole area controlled by the British, 1,805,252 square miles, equal to three-fifths of the area of the United States or Canada.

In the year 327 B.C. Alexander the Great, heir of the Persians, entered India, and remained about two years. He defeated the leading native prince of the north-west, captured cities, founded colonies, set up governments friendly to himself, and left some garrisons. A large body of his troops was posted in Bactria, now Afghanistan, just over the borders. His soldiers, however, rebelled against the climate, and his invasion was confined to the Punjab and Sind, just like that of the Persians. The permanent influence was, nevertheless, much greater. Statues began to be made of Buddha somewhat in the Greek style, and a trickle of Greek literary influence flowed in from Bactria. This was not strong enough to change the thought of the country, because India possessed a mentality so independent that its lines of growth were already determined. Even the ancient architecture of India was thoroughly native.

The Maurya Dynasty, 322-184 B.C.

Alexander's short sojourn in India was long enough to produce an imitator. This was Chandragupta, an exile from his native state, who took refuge in the Greek camp. It proved to be a school to him. Within a few years he had won a kingdom for himself in the country where Buddha had attained enlightenment; the capital was Pataliputra,

now Patna (map page 295). He ruled from 322 to 298 B.C. and his dynasty lasted until 184 B.C. This was the Hellenistic Age in the Mediterranean when Greek culture was sweeping over the Near East. Chandragupta made himself master of the Greeks whom Alexander had left behind him in the Punjab, and this advance brought him face to face with Seleucus, Alexander's successor in Syria. The rivals made peace instead of fighting, which was probably a wise choice for the Greek, because the Indian army comprised 8,000 war chariots and 9,000 war elephants, besides half a million cavalry and infantry. Chandragupta received the daughter of Seleucus as a bride, and took over the Greek colonies both in India and over the border. Seleucus went away with a gift of 500 elephants. He also left an ambassador behind, who wrote the first true account of India for the Greeks. His name was Megasthenes, and for centuries he was accounted in the West as one of the great liars of all time, until the modern contacts of Europeans with India by sea proved him to be a truthful observer.

Asoka, the Buddhist King

The Maurya Empire was ruled from 264 to 227 B.C. by Asoka. In his early years he was a conqueror, and his domain extended over all of Hindustan, and beyond it into Sind, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, Kashmir, Nepal and Bengal; he even penetrated into the Deccan for some distance. In the midst of this martial career he became horrified by the cruelties of war, and turned to the faith of Buddha. Thereupon he inaugurated the greatest missionary campaigns of all ancient times. Inscriptions of his, carved upon pillars and rocks and in caves, tell how he sent missionaries "to the uttermost limits of barbarian countries", and instructed them to "mingle among all unbelievers", and "to convert them by persuasion and not by the sword". He encouraged men to retire into monasteries, and is said to have supported 64,000 monks; his own kingdom, the very

one in which Buddha is said to have attained enlightenment, received the name of the Land of the Monasteries, which it still bears (Vihara, Bihar or Behar). He also summoned learned men of Buddhism to meet in councils and fix its doctrines. It need hardly be mentioned that he did for his faith what Constantine did for Christianity, but he did infinitely more.

The good Asoka had no successors of his own kind, and the Maurya Dynasty came to an abrupt end in 184 B.C. For the following five centuries there was little unity in the history of India. The Greek kings of the Seleucid Empire came again and again without making very permanent conquests. About 100 A.D. three races began to come in from the north-west, Scythians from the grass-lands, Parthians from the mountains, and Greek adventurers. These were all hated by the Hindus because they had no respect for holy places or native customs.

Following them came the race that had caused the previous invasions, the Yueh-chi. This is a Chinese name, and was given to them while inhabitants of the province of Kansu in western China. Harassed by the Huns, they had come down into Bactria and thence into India. There they were called Kushans. The centre of their power was not in India proper (Hindustan), but in Central Asia, and they opened up caravan routes between India and the west. They sent an embassy to Rome in 99 A.D. Their most famous king was Kanishka, whose capital was Peshawar, at the Indian end of the famous Khyber Pass. He became a convert to Buddhism, and contributed something to World History by summoning a council of Buddhism. It was the doctrine founded by this council that became known as "the northern canon" or "the greater vehicle", and was adopted in Tibet and China. The purer teachings that prevailed south of the Himalayas became known as "the southern canon" or "the lesser vehicle". Thus Buddhism, like Christianity, had its divisions or schisms (pp. 264-265; 390-398).

The Gupta Empire, 320-648 A.D.

There was chaos again after the Kushan kings came to an end, and it was not until 320 A.D. that the last orderly empire of ancient times was established in India. This was the Gupta Empire, 320-648 A.D. (map page 295). The capital of this was Pataliputra (Patna). This is known as a Golden Age. There was peace and order during the earlier and later parts of it. The country abounded in learned men, and the Aryan literature, written in the Sanskrit language, was greatly increased. The word *Sanskrit* really means "adorned" or "embellished"; it denotes the literary language as opposed to the popular speech. It was during this period that India's most famous drama was composed, *Sakuntala*, by Kalidasa. There were also talented painters and architects. Characteristic of this period are caves hewn in the face of rocky ravines, with verandahs of the natural rock, serving for Buddhist monasteries. It was a time of trade both east and west. Three embassies were sent to Rome. Roman silver flowed to India in payment for cottons, jewels, pepper and cinnamon.

As if India was never to be permitted to enjoy long prosperity, the fourth and fifth century witnessed a fresh invasion from the north, that of the White Huns or Ephthalites. They had come slowly southwards from the region of the Great Wall on the north-west borders of China. They descended in multitudes upon Persia, from there upon Afghanistan, and thence to India. Their own empire was of the raiding type, organized for robbery and not for government. It was checked in India by a desperate combination of native princes in 525, and it collapsed entirely when their chief armies were beaten in 565 A.D. by the Turks near the Oxus River, beyond the Hindu Kush range.

The last great king of ancient India was trained to his task by fighting under his father against the Huns. This was Harsha (606-648 A.D.). He was a benevolent despot and gave his people a greater feeling of security than was

justified. Towards the end of his reign his dominions embraced the whole of the Ganges valley and somewhat more. Before his time only Asoka had been sovereign of a greater territory. Unfortunately, he lacked successors of his own training and ability. There was disunion again after his death.

During the Gupta period the religion of the royal court was Buddhism. This was true even in the interval when the White Huns or Ephthalites were upsetting the regular course of events. The esteem in which Buddha was held is illustrated by the quest of genuine relics of the saint, which were deposited in shrines (*stupas*), the ancestors of Chinese pagodas. Fa-Hsien, a Chinese traveller, who was in India from 399 to 414 A.D., relates the following miraculous incident, which is characteristic of the time:

> Buddha's alms-bowl being in this country (Peshawar), the king of the Ephthalites formerly got together a large army and attacked, with a view to carrying off the bowl. When he had conquered the country, as he was himself an ardent believer in the religion of Buddha, he wished to take possession of the bowl, and therefore began to make offerings. When he had made his offerings to the Precious Trinity, he richly decorated a huge elephant and placed the bowl on its back. Thereupon the elephant promptly collapsed and was unable to move. A four-wheeled cart was then made to convey the bowl, and a team of eight elephants were harnessed to it. When these, too, were unable to stir, the king knew that his hour for possession of the bowl had not yet come. Filled with shame and regret he built a pagoda on the spot and also a monastery, leaving a garrison to guard the bowl and making all kinds of offerings.[1]

Hinduism

After the Gupta epoch, however, Buddhism in India began to lose its power of growth. Its missionary enterprise had carried it to Tibet and China north of the Himalayas, and to Ceylon, Burma, Siam and Cambodia in the south, but at home it dwindled. This would seem the more remarkable if Christianity also had not flourished best in countries far from its first home, that is, in western Europe.

[1]Giles' Translation, p. 14.

Perhaps every religion meets with the greatest resistance in the country of its birth. The foes of Buddhism in India were the Brahmans, the wise men, who understood the Aryan Vedic books containing all the hymns of the gods and the directions for worship and sacrifice. They were, and are still, experts in divine law, whose advice the layman must secure upon all the chief occasions of life, birth, marriage, sickness and burial, and at all seasons of worship.

It was these Brahmans who, in their own interests, built up the system of castes or classes, which to the foreigner is the most astonishing feature of Hindu society. It means that every orthodox Hindu regards all people not in his own class or caste as unclean. For example, it happened one day that a Canadian missionary placed his hand upon the head of a pretty child in the street. Its mother ran out, seized the child, changed its clothes and gave it a bath. It had been polluted by the touch of a foreigner. It would have been equally polluted by the touch of any Hindu of a lower caste than its parents.

The number of castes was small in the Gupta epoch but steadily grew, until now it has reached 2,400. Castes are connected with trades, and each boy must follow his father's trade. Every son must marry within the caste. At the bottom of the caste system are the "untouchables", who perform the most loathsome tasks, and must leave the road when one of a higher caste approaches. The caste system grew as Buddhism waned and was well started before the end of ancient times, that is, the seventh century.

In connection with Hinduism there grew up some hideous practices not known to the Aryan invaders. Among these was the habit of throwing girl babies to the crocodiles in the Ganges River, and that of burning widows on the funeral pyres of their husbands. When a prince died, this meant burning scores, or even two or three hundred women. Other customs arose that were, and are, loathsome: for

example, sacrificing animals continually at certain shrines, which turns temples into slaughter houses; the custom of bathing in the sacred Ganges, and drinking the water, which is disgusting to foreigners, because the water is not only filthy, but also dangerous to health. These bathing-places have always been clearing houses for plagues, especially cholera. Travellers who fear being shocked should not visit India, and it is the rites connected with Hinduism that are particularly shocking.

CHAPTER XIX

THE ANCIENT HISTORY OF CHINA

Dimensions of China—Origin of the Chinese—The Northern and Southern Barbarians—Antiquity of China—Diligence of the Chinese Farmer—The Chinese Incessant Colonizers—Domestic Animals of China—Culture of Silk—Useful Trees.

HISTORY OF CHINA.—Earliest Remains—The Chou Dynasty, 1122-249 B.C.—Peking not the Capital of Early China.

CONFUCIUS, THE REFORMER, 551-478 B.C.—The Confucian Code of Morals—"Saving the Face"—Specimen of Confucian Teaching—The Worship of Ancestors; its Effect.

TAOISM.—Creed of Taoism; Later Taoism—Survival of Confucianism and Taoism—Shih Hwang-ti, 246-209 B.C.; Chin Dynasty—Construction of the Great Wall—Burning of the Confucian Books.

THE HAN DYNASTY, 206 B.C.-220 A.D.—Western Extension of China—Civil Service Examinations—Increase of Caravan Trade.

ARRIVAL OF BUDDHISM IN CHINA.—Invention of Paper, 150 A.D.

China is a huge block of land of which the rivers drain into the Pacific Ocean. It lies between the bleak expanse of Siberia on the north and the Himalaya Mountains on the south. The eighteen provinces of the old Chinese Empire embraced an area equal to half of the United States or Canada. They were ringed around, however, by a belt of outlying provinces, Tibet, Eastern or Chinese Turkestan (Sinkiang), Mongolia and Manchuria, which made a total one-third larger than the United States or Canada. There was even a period during the Tang Dynasty, in the seventh century A.D., when the Empire was the largest that had ever existed. It extended westward to the Caspian Sea and southwards to the borders of Persia and India. These expansions and contractions of territory are due to the fact that the country has no natural boundaries on the west and the north. To extend the frontiers was the best plan of self-defence, whenever it was feasible.

If the question is asked, in what part of this huge area the Chinese civilization was born, the answer will be, in the provinces of Shansi and Honan on either side of the

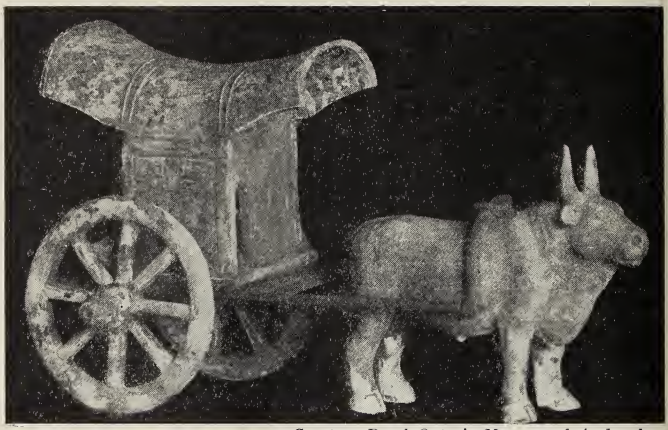
Hoang-ho or Yellow River in its lower course, but not at the sea. China was long an inland kingdom. The Hoang-ho received its name from the yellow soil that stains its waters. This colour is acquired as it flows through the provinces of the north-west, which are covered to a great depth by wind-blown earth (loess). Tradition says that the Chinese came originally from a region westward of this Yellow Country, where the Hoang-ho rises beyond the Nan Shan Mountains. This is quite credible, because the drift of population in eastern Asia was steadily towards the sea.

From the very dawn of history the Chinese have been an extremely proud race. In the remotest times they spoke of their neighbours as the "northern barbarians" and the "southern barbarians". The former were no doubt the roving, horse-riding, meat-eating and milk-drinking tribes of the northern pastures, known as Tatars or Tartars. The southern barbarians must have been the rice-growing villagers of the warmer and moister Yangtse Valley and delta. It is manifest, therefore, that the Chinese were the middlemen between the boisterous and domineering hunters and herdsmen of the North and the diligent toilers of the swamps and marsh-lands of the South. They possessed something of the virtues of both. From the one they had inherited the disposition to rule, to defend themselves and even to conquer. From the other they were learning the arts of peace, the settled life of villages and cities, the comforts of houses, and the winning of wealth by tillage and trade, rather than by raiding and robbing.

The proud Chinese historians claimed for their civilization the greatest antiquity of all, but it was probably no older than those of India, Mesopotamia and Egypt. The four great river systems, the Nile, the Tigris and Euphrates, the Indus and the Ganges, the Yangtse and the Hoang-ho, seem to have given birth to the arts of peace independently of one another, and at approximately the same time. From these four centres the rest of the Eastern Hemisphere was

civilized more or less. It was different in America. The culture of Mexico, Central America and Peru was much younger, and was only narrowly disseminated when the first white men came.

If Chinese civilization was not more ancient, it certainly differed in two other respects: first, China was larger than



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

UNGLAZED POTTERY CART AND OX FROM TOMB, TANG DYNASTY (618-906 A.D.)
The prairie schooner of the Chinese.

Mesopotamia or Egypt and richer in land even than India, and second, the Chinese farmer was more thrifty, independent and persistent. Nowhere in the world can the diligence of the Chinese farmer be surpassed. Long, long ago, his ancestors slowly reclaimed the low-lying lands around the lower course of the Yangtse, where the rice flourished. They added field to field, encroaching upon higher ground, where ditches were necessary for watering the plants. Wider and wider spread the area of cultivation. Each farm was divided among the sons, and so the plots became smaller and smaller. In those same fertile regions

to-day, one third of the peasants possess less than an acre apiece. More than half the plots are less than an acre and a half. Yet upon each plot a family of five or six must live.

When the limit of subdivision has been reached, there is no choice but to seek land elsewhere. Thus the pressure of population has made incessant colonizers of the Chinese in all ages. Recurring flood and famine, increasing the tension upon families always near the starvation point, literally expel hundreds of thousands from their homes. In recent years the numbers emigrating to Manchuria in the North have exceeded 40,000 per week. They have piled up a total of almost 30,000,000 millions in that province. At the present time they are going into Mongolia, taking their coffins on their ox-carts along with their paltry household goods, and when the Chinese takes his coffin along with him, it is a well-known fact that he intends to stay.

It is also a well-known fact of history that the farmer always drives away the hunter and the herdsman. This has happened time and again in America, especially on the Prairies, and it is happening to-day in Mongolia and Manchuria. It has been happening all down the ages in China. Two thousand years ago the Chinese nobles possessed herds of splendid horses imported from Persia, and Chinese ladies rode horseback and played a game like polo. To-day there are few horses in China, in spite of the fact that it is such a large country, and these are chiefly ponies imported from Mongolia. The truth is that there is little food in China for horses. Every foot of fertile land is cultivated. In many parts there are no bushes even for the ox to browse upon, because every woody plant is pulled up by the roots and used for fuel. The family ox must find his subsistence in the scanty grass of the roadway. The chief domestic animals are the pig and the goat, because they can live off the by-products of house-keeping. Poultry are favoured for the same reason.

The intensiveness of Chinese agriculture had the effect

of banishing sheep from farming districts; land was too precious to be spared for pasture. Silk took the place of wool. Silk has been as profitable to China as wool to England. The mulberry tree was spared because it fed the silk-worm, and because it produced from two to six crops of leaves per year, depending upon the locality. Between the silk-worm itself and the Chinese farmer there is a mystic kinship because both are such diligent workers. The spinning and weaving of silk furnished work for the women, and rounded off the household industry. It has been to the women of China what dairying has been to women of western Europe. There is no dairying in China.

Trees, in general, fit into the Chinese farm economy better than animals, but they must be very useful to survive. The tallow tree produces a seed from which a grease is taken to make soap and candles and to dress cloth. The beautiful Chinese varnish called lacquer is made from the sap of a tree. In the use of it the infinite diligence and skill of the race is exhibited; as many as twenty or thirty coats of it are applied to wood as a basis for decoration, and each coat must be polished. Camphor was long made by boiling the wood of the camphor tree, which was destroyed for the sake of the product. The use of tea in China is not ancient, but once discovered, the culture of the plant was quickly developed, the more rapidly because it grows on hillsides and in dooryards unsuitable for grain crops.

While speaking of useful plants the bamboo must not be omitted.

> What iron is to the West, bamboo is to the East. Of it are made masts for junks, punting poles for sampans, poles with which coolies carry the nation's freight, implements for farmers. roofs for houses; scaffolding for building, pipes for drainage, girders for bridges, ribs for umbrellas, frames for fans, handles for writing-brushes, rims for spectacles; combs, baskets, sieves, screens, sunshades, buckets, needles, chop-sticks, pipe-stems, flower-stakes, trellis-work, flutes, fiddles, fifes, candlesticks, lanterns, furniture; its leaves are woven into clothing and hats, its fibre into the soles of shoes; its young sprouts are cooked and eaten or, pickled, are used as a relish; a substance found in its joints is compounded into a medicine. A clump of bamboo is the

haunt of the dreamer, a detail by which the painter enhances the beauty of a landscape, a background before which the poet or the novelist develops a romance.[1]

History of China

The written history of China speaks of dates as early as 3000 B.C., but this is not early enough. There were human beings living there tens of thousands of years ago. This has been proven by finds of stone implements in the Gobi Desert, in the north-west provinces, and around Mukden in Manchuria. In a cave near Peking (Peiping) parts of a skeleton were recently found that is claimed to rank in antiquity with the oldest yet discovered in Europe and Palestine (the so-called Peking man). More light will be thrown on the prehistoric period when the caves in southern China and other sites of primitive habitations have been studied. At present it is the opinion of many scientists that Central Asia is much drier than in former times. Before the deserts were formed, they believe, intercourse between the east and the west and the north and the south was easy. The similarity between stone implements found in China and others found in France and Arabia seems to point to an ancient traffic. On the other hand, the drying up of the central lands separated Europe and Arabia from China, and increased the differences between the races and their culture. Certain it is that the Chinese for thousands of years went their own way, developing their own arts, customs, dress, speech, manners and government.

The earliest records tell of princes who taught the people how to hunt, fish and farm, and how to build cities and frame laws, but this is only a childish kind of guessing. The beginnings of human society are far too remote for record. It was not wise men but nature and necessity that taught men how to make shelters for themselves, to find food and clothing, and to work out the rules of life by long experimentation. One legend tells how the wife of a certain

[1]Thomas Steep, *Chinese Fantastics*, 54-55.

emperor invented the culture of silk, but this is only a picturesque way of declaring that the winding and spinning and weaving of silk was women's work.

The Chou Dynasty, 1122-249 B.C.

The history of China is recorded by dynasties, as in the case of Egypt. Dates are uncertain even after written documents become numerous, but the true story of the rulers is thought to begin with the Chou Dynasty, 1122 B.C. It would be a mistake to think of Peking as the capital city in those days; it does not enter into the story in an important way for more than a thousand years later, and even then under other names. One of the early capitals was Loyang, now Honan, on the Hoang-ho. The site of the present capital, Nanking, was not even within the boundaries of China in the early days. It was only during the course of the Chou Dynasty that the southern frontier was extended as far as the Yangtse. The tendency was, of course, for the rulers to work their way southwards and the farmers to work their way northwards.

Under the kings of the Chou Dynasty there was no strong central government, but local princes were vigorous and enterprising. Tombs of the old province of Honan yield imposing specimens of bronze vessels. This implies that the knowledge of copper and tin was already old, because the art of casting thin vessels of bronze is not quickly developed. The iron age had also begun.

Confucius, The Reformer, 551-478 B.C.

The fact that China was already an ancient country in the times of the Chou Dynasty is further indicated by the existence of schools and schoolmasters. There was already a large literature, written upon tablets of bamboo. In the opinion of the more thoughtful people the country was already in its old age and dotage. This conviction was so strong that a wise man came forward to offer a way of

salvation. This was the philosopher Confucius, 551-478 B.C. During his lifetime, when Chinese civilization seemed to be failing, the Persian Empire in the South was approaching the peak of its greatness. In Europe the glorious epoch of Athenian democracy was drawing near. Outside of Greece and Italy there was no advanced culture in Europe.

Confucius thought himself faced by the breakdown of Chinese family life, and set himself to the task of repairing it. He analysed, classified and described all the duties of human beings as follows: the duties of a subject to his sovereign, of a child to his parents, of a wife to her husband, of a younger man to an elder, and of friends to friends. This, of course, is a science of conduct or ethics, and not a religion. It is nearer to etiquette than to religion, because Confucius wrote instructions for behaviour upon every occasion, whether one was making a visit, arranging a betrothal, or attending a wedding or a funeral.

It was not a democratic code of conduct, because it prescribed how an inferior person should approach and address a superior. One element of it was the desire to avoid disappointment or embarrassment. For example, if a man desired a wife for his son, he would not approach the father of the young lady himself, for fear of a rebuff, but would send a third person to ascertain if a betrothal would be favourably considered. If the inquiry was welcomed, then the two parents might arrange a conference to discuss the dowry. If the offer was declined, then the one who had proposed it had at least been spared the pain of refusal; he had "saved his face". To "save the face" is the purpose of much Chinese ceremoniousness.

If the code of Confucius was not democratic, it was full of kindliness. If one took his doctrines to heart he would become a very agreeable companion and a gentleman. Their spirit may be gleaned from the following specimen: "To be able to practise five things everywhere under heaven constitutes perfect virtue: gravity, generosity, sincerity,

earnestness and kindness. If you are grave, you will not be treated with disrespect. If you are generous, you will win all. If you are sincere, people will repose trust in you. If you are earnest, you will accomplish much. If you are kind, this will enable you to employ the services of others."

The effect of the teaching of Confucius was to confirm an instinct that was strangely strong in the hearts of his people, the family tie. If his commandments signified only obedience to parents, Christian races would subscribe entire approval, but the Chinese family was not the Christian family. In China the dead were, and are, members of the family as well as the living. The worship of ancestors is bound up with it. To the Chinese the burying ground, situated on the paternal farm, is the most sacred place in the world. To think of it as being desecrated, neglected or abandoned is a prospect too painful to be contemplated. At all costs the sanctity of the spot must be ensured for the future.

This has always been a powerful driving force in Chinese history. To perpetuate the worship of his ancestors a man must have sons. The desire for sons means a high birth-rate. The high birth-rate increases the necessity of adding field to field, because sons must have land. In other words, the high birth-rate means that the Chinese must be incessant colonizers. In spite of famine, flood and pestilence, they have always been increasing their cultivated area, as they are still doing to-day in Mongolia and Manchuria. Since the time of Confucius the population of his country has grown from fifty to four hundred millions

Taoism

Confucius had an illustrious disciple, known by his Latinized name of Mencius, standing for Mang-tsze, "Mang the philosopher" (d. 289 B.C.), who won almost equal esteem with his master in later ages. He also had a rival in his own time, named Lao Tzu. His code was the contrary

of Confucianism; he taught that men should shake themselves free from the family and from society and live according to the laws of nature. This doctrine is called Taoism. The word Tao denoted the energy of heaven and earth working for the good of mankind. Living in harmony with it meant a condition of natural innocence in close contact with the soil. It meant avoidance of war and all the entanglements of royal courts. It was a creed of non-resistance, and found its response in the inborn patience of the long-suffering Chinese peasant.

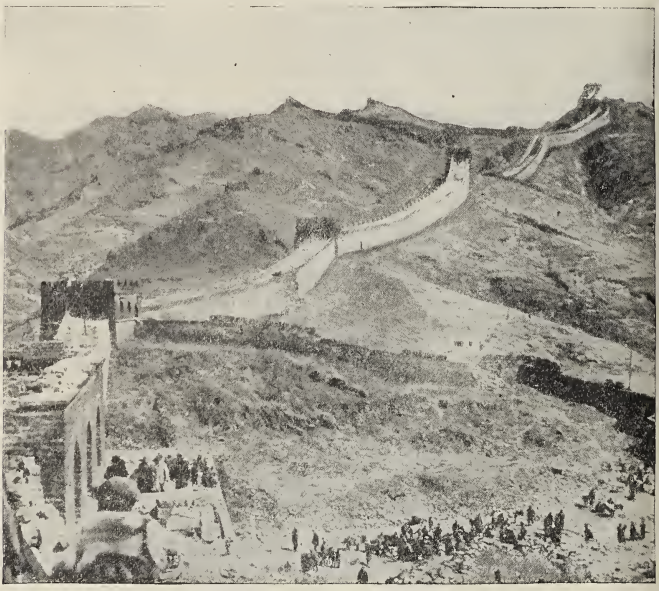
In later times the Taoist priests took to fortune-telling and driving out evil spirits for fees. They also practised magic and, like magicians in Europe in the Middle Ages, dabbled in chemistry. Their quest for the Elixir of Life, a marvellous drink that would give men eternal life and youth, became known in Europe and had some influence there; the same is true of their search for a method of turning the baser metals into gold. The sect adopted the methods of Buddhists and founded temples and monasteries. Taoist and Buddhist priests are often summoned together to take part in modern Chinese funerals.

Both Confucianism and Taoism were intended to have a steadying effect upon Chinese society. Confucius wished to restore and preserve the orderly court life of Chinese princes of the feudal age. Lao Tzu wished to restore and preserve the wholesome village life of industrious Chinese peasants. Confucian etiquette became the basis of the Chinese Empire that arose a few centuries after his time. Taoism survived because more than half the millions of China still live on the land and in villages.

Shih Hwang-Ti, 246-209 B.C.; Chin Dynasty

The disorder that grieved Confucious continued for the remainder of the Chou epoch. The kings had never been strong, and the real power was in the hands of local princes, each of whom ruled a few hundred square miles of territory

as he pleased. The restoration of order was not accomplished by philosophy but by a strong and rather ruthless war-lord, Shih Hwang-ti, who may be considered as the founder of the Chinese Empire. It was from his dynasty, the Chin or Tsin, that China received its name. His capital was Sienyang, also called Changan, Siking and Sianfu, because

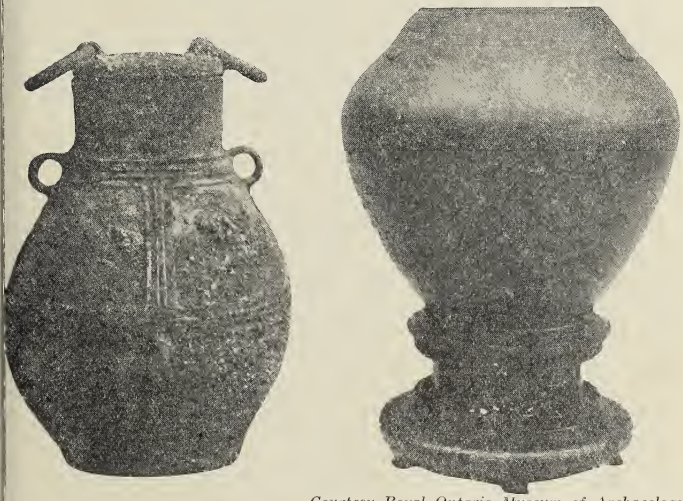


A Section of the Great Wall of China

different dynasties were accustomed to bestow different names upon the same city. It is situated in Shensi province on the Yellow River in the Yellow Country. Yellow, it may be mentioned, was the imperial colour in China, just as purple was in Rome.

It was from his capital Sienyang that Shih Hwang-ti directed the construction of the Great Wall of China along

the northern border, 229-228 B.C. It is twenty feet high and has a roadway thirteen feet wide along the top, with towers at intervals of about one hundred yards. When completed in later times, it extended from the sea on the east all the way to the Gobi Desert on the west, through



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

(*Left*) Bronze Vase with Cover, from Tomb in Shensi, Chin Dynasty (255-206 B.C.)

(*Right*) Glass Vase Made in Alexandria, Found in a Tomb of the Tang Dynasty (618-906 A.D.)

valleys and over mountains, a total distance of 1,400 miles. For sheer magnitude this undertaking is without a parallel in all history. Its purpose was to shut out the roving hunters and herdsmen of the North, Tatars or Tartars, kinsmen of the Huns. They were perhaps the most skilful raiders of all time, hordes of mounted archers, who swept down like cyclones and departed like the wind. It was kinsmen of these tribes who raided in Europe thousands of miles from their home-land (p. 237).

Before Shih Hwang-ti began the construction of the Wall he had subdued the princes at home and instituted a strong central government. He divided his dominions into 36 provinces, and appointed officials of his own to administer them. This aroused the hostility of the Confucian philosophers, who were naturally friends of the princes. Their opposition so enraged the progressive Emperor, as we may call Shih Hwang-ti, that he ordered all the writings of Confucius to be collected and burned. The philosophers themselves were humiliated and disgraced.

The Han Dynasty, 206 B.C.-220 A.D.

The Chin Dynasty lasted but a short time, 256-207 B.C. After the death of the mighty Shih Hwang-ti there were three years of disorder, and then the illustrious Han Dynasty was founded. These kings so impressed themselves upon the imaginations of the people that to this day the Chinese, except the Cantonese, are proud to call themselves the "sons of Han". The first of the Han emperors was Liu Pang, who had been a constable in charge of ten villages, and fought his way to the yellow robes by courage and good luck. He gave the name of Han to his house in honour of the river Han, where he had been stationed.

A greater than Liu Pang was the "Martial Emperor", Wu Ti, 140-86 B.C., who continued to send his armies east to Korea, south to Tongking, and north-west against the Huns for almost forty years. He pushed the frontiers of China's influence as far as Parthia, near the Caspian Sea. Remains of walls and forts erected at this time may still be seen in Eastern or Chinese Turkestan (Sinkiang). Equally famous as the wars of Wu Ti are the peaceful missions of the minister Chang Ch'ien, who travelled widely in Central Asia and made treaties with 36 states. He is also said to have brought the grape back to China with him.

The Han emperors made themselves illustrious at home by establishing the Civil Service Examinations, which were

employed until 1905 to select the officials of the Chinese Empire. The course of study for the examinations was based upon the writings of Confucius, which Shih Hwang-ti had ordered to be burned, and upon the collections of classical works which Confucius had assembled (Confucian Classics). It was just as if the officers of the British Crown should be selected for their superior knowledge of the Bible and the Plays of Shakespeare. In the course of time, as the system became fully developed, examinations were conducted by each magistrate in his own district. Candidates successful in District Examinations would next try the Provincial Examinations, and only a few hundred could succeed out of 10,000. The few who passed these would next try the Metropolitan Examinations at the capital, and only 300 could be successful out of 6,000. These were assured of good appointments as officials. This system bestowed a sort of unity upon the huge Chinese Empire for two thousand years. It is said to have been one of the most successful political devices ever invented by human beings.

The Hans lost control of the Empire in the first century A.D., but recovered it again. This break divides the line of emperors into the Earlier and the Later Han. The latter were flourishing when the Roman Empire was enjoying its Golden Age under the Antonines. The caravan trade was enjoying its first prosperity on a large scale. Long trains of two-humped Bactrian camels might have been seen winding their tedious way over wind-swept deserts and snow-covered mountain passes to the rendezvous in what is now the Uzbek Republic of Soviet Russia. At this point the bales were transferred to single-humped Arab camels, which carried them to Syria. In Syria the silk was woven into fine cloth for Greek and Roman ladies. It was under this dynasty also that a Roman trade mission reached China by sea, in 166 A.D. Direct contact, however, was never established between the Roman and the Chinese Empires. There were too many middlemen in Central Asia who

profited by the caravan trade; they saw to it that neither traders nor travellers made the whole journey either way. It need hardly be added that caravans paid for protection in passing through intermediate countries.

There is also a grim aspect to the glory of the Han Dynasty in China. It is fairly certain that their temporary dominion over the central states of Asia deflected the forays of the Huns to regions farther north and west. This assumption would reasonably account for the mass-movements of population in eastern Europe that set the German tribes to the west in motion and rendered the defence of the Roman frontiers so difficult from the second century onwards (p. 180). Certain it is, that, following the Han epoch, the Huns raided to greater and greater distances, reaching both India and southern Europe.

Arrival of Buddhism in China

With the first of the Han emperors began the worship of Confucius, instituted by Liu Pang in 195 B.C. Buddhism is mentioned before this date, as early as 217 B.C., but only in the first century A.D. did it begin to flourish. The story runs that the Han emperor, Ming Ti, in the year 61 A.D. dreamed of the golden image of a man coming into the palace. Inspired by this he sent a mission to India, which returned after a few years with an image of Buddha and some Buddhist books. This first official recognition of the Indian saint happens to coincide very nearly with the execution of Paul and Peter in Rome; the two religions were growing strong in two diverse regions at the same time. Soon afterwards Christian pilgrims began to look to Palestine as the Holy Land, and the Chinese Buddhists with equal fervour began to travel to the haunts of their saint in Bihar as a region equally sacred. The story of Buddhism in China, however, belongs more properly in the history of the Middle Ages (pp. 312-313). It is sufficient to state here that the frequent civil wars in China made of Buddhist

monasteries and convents a welcome refuge for tens of thousands of men and women. The command of Confucius to marry and raise sons to perpetuate the family worship was not strong enough to prevent the growth of the monastic practice.

Tombs of the Han period reveal for the first time the manufacture of glazed earthenware, which had been known in Egypt for many centuries. Tombs were furnished with a multitude of images of servants, horses and camels for the use of the deceased in the next world. They furnish a glimpse of the life of the time more vivid than books. Paper was also made for the first time in this epoch, about 150 A.D. The material was silk; earlier books had been written on tablets of bamboo, which were displaced but slowly. The end of the Han Dynasty, 220 A.D., is usually accounted the end of Ancient History in China.

CHAPTER XX

THE LEGACY OF THE ANCIENT WORLD

Ancient Civilization Confined to Shores and Rivers—Material Legacy of Ancient Rome—The Latin Language in the Western Provinces—The Greek Language in the Eastern Provinces—Material and Literary Monuments of Persia and India—Universal Legacy of Handicrafts—A Richer Legacy in Eastern Countries—A Legacy of Trade between East and West—Multiple Legacy of Religions—Growth of Christianity in the West—The Arts of War—The Spirit of War not Conquered by Religion.

The period of civilization included in Ancient History was drawing to its close in the fifth century A.D. Its farthest west and north was Britain; its farthest east was China. In Europe it was essentially a shore civilization along the Atlantic Ocean and both coasts of the Mediterranean. In Egypt, Mesopotamia, India and China it was a river civilization. In both Europe and Asia the great central land-mass remained a vast reservoir of vigorous and intelligent but only partly civilized races. In Central Europe tribes of German stock predominated, in Central Asia the Huns, all restless and quick to change their homes.

The material legacy of the Roman Empire was a vast network of good roads and stout bridges, a multitude of trim towns with water-works, public baths, theatres, temples and schools, all doomed to destruction or neglect. It was a highly cultivated world with tilled fields, vineyards, orchards, gardens and beautiful country residences, also doomed to neglect or destruction.

A special legacy of the Western Roman Empire was the Latin language, once spoken from Africa to Britain and from France to Rumania. The modern Spanish, French, Italian and Rumanian are its children. Latin became the mother-tongue of Western Europe. It survived almost unchanged as the language of the Roman Catholic Church. It remained the language of educated people even to the

seventeenth century. In it were preserved the writings of the great authors of Rome, poets, orators, historians, and philosophers. The Latin Classics have been to Europe what the Confucian Classics have been to China, a common possession of warring races.

A corresponding legacy of the Eastern Roman Empire was the Greek language, spoken from Greece to Constantinople and from there to Egypt. It became the language of the Greek Catholic Church and so survived like Latin in the West. The classical authors of Greece continued to be the text-books of schools even till the fall of Constantinople in 1453 A.D. At the same time the external beauty of Greek cities long remained almost unspoiled. Cities like Athens and Ephesus with their handsome temples continued to remind men of a glorious past.

It was similar in Mesopotamia, India and China. Great cities with temples and palaces continued to remind men that their civilization was very ancient. The buildings of the Guptas and the monuments of Asoka preserved the memories of these kings among the people. The writings of the ancient Persians, the sacred books of the Brahmans and the Confucian Classics perpetuated the thought and history of their respective peoples. Everywhere from East to West were great heritages of writing.

A common legacy of the whole ancient world consisted in the industries and the arts. There was little either useful or beautiful that man can make with his hands that the ancients overlooked. Few fabrics were so fine or so beautifully coloured that the weavers of Persia, India and China could not match them. In this field the busy workers of the East have always been supreme. They have exported their rugs and silks to the West.

The architecture of ancient India or of China was very different from that of Egypt or Greece, but it was not inferior. It was richer and more varied. It was not the Romans alone that built roads and bridges; the princes of

ancient China did the same. The pottery and bronze work of the Greeks was unequalled in Europe, but the Chinese in their own way were not less skilful. The heritage of handicrafts was universal in the Ancient World but somewhat richer in the East.

Along with the arts and crafts went money and world trade. The products of distant lands had become necessities of life. The great trade routes had been well marked out before Ancient History came to an end. The East was a great seller. China sent caravans laden with silk to Yarkand or Kashgar and other caravans brought the precious freight to the Mediterranean. Pepper, cloves and other spices were brought from the East Indies and India by sea to Egypt. Through Alexandria they were distributed over the Roman Empire. Tin had been exported from Britain for a thousand years, and lead since Roman times. Caravans of camels laden with rice had long traversed the mountains of Asia, and fleets of ships bearing wheat had long ploughed the Mediterranean. The nations were already dependent upon one another.

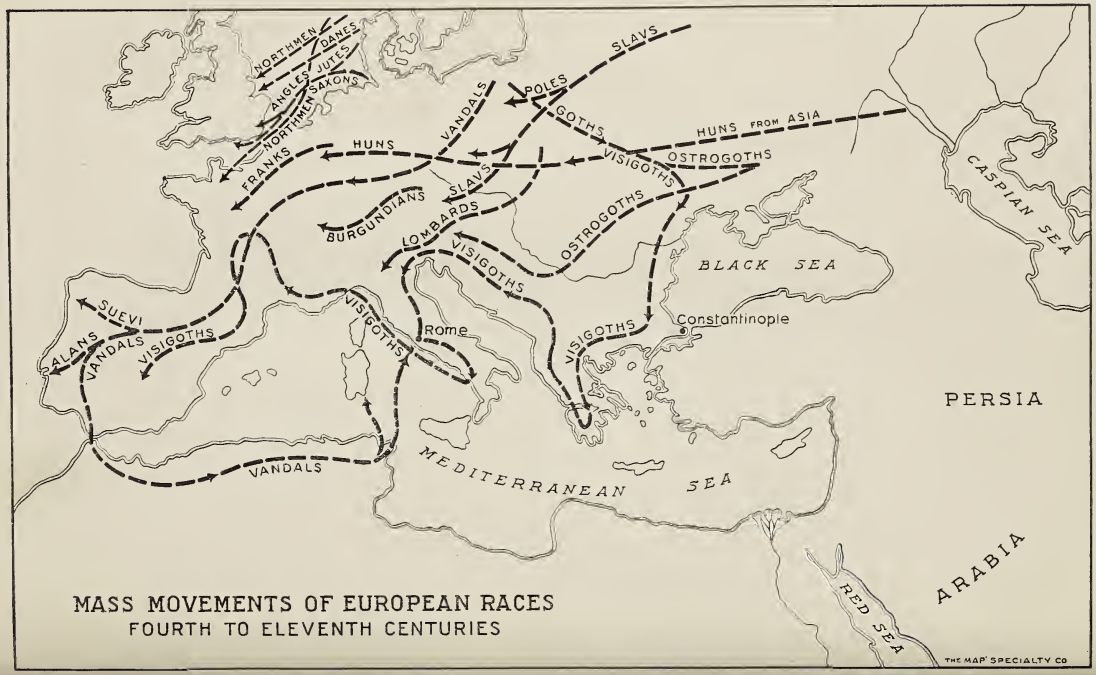
A more outstanding heritage of all was religion. In China three great religions continued to thrive, Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism. In India Buddhism lost ground, but was not forgotten. Hinduism with its caste system grew stronger and stronger. In Persia an ancient sect survived that revered the powers of light and darkness. Its priests laid special stress upon the struggle of good and evil for the mastery of the world. This was a kind of sun-worship and was ascribed to a prophet called Zoroaster. It still survives among the Parsees of Bombay.

Palestine had become the Holy Land of Christianity, which prevailed throughout the West and flourished extraordinarily in distant Ireland. Over this whole area thousands of men and women were withdrawing from the world to spend their lives in monasteries and convents. The Church was beginning to accumulate valuable lands through

the generosity of the faithful. Thousands of churches were being erected for congregational worship. A beautiful ritual of worship was being built up. The incense of Arabia was carried to all parts for the worship of God. Everywhere bishops were beginning to vie with kings for the leadership of the people.

Over against the kindly gospels of Jesus Christ, Buddha and Confucius must be placed a terrible legacy in the arts of war. Civilization had begun with the cultivation of the soil, but all ancient empires had been erected in war. The weapons of war had steadily multiplied. To clubs, spears and arrows the sword, the battle-axe and the horse had been added. Throughout the whole period of Ancient History the horse was used only in war; it was harnessed only for the chariot, never for the plough or the cart. The Age of Iron meant chiefly better weapons of destruction. The discovery of steel did not lead to the use of machines but to better swords and harder armour. It may be said that the ancients bequeathed to their descendants the whole armoury of war except gunpowder and other explosives.

Along with the armoury of war went the spirit of war. Against this spirit the kindliest religions have been powerless. The example of conquering heroes such as Alexander the Great and Julius Caesar continued to rule the kings of Western Europe. The ghost of the Roman Empire would not down. Religions, instead of being preventives of bloodshed, became the motives of it in Europe. For the Far East it must be said that this is less true. In both India and China men were more tolerant. Of war among them there was an abundant heritage but religion was rarely the motive of it. The area of Christianity must admit that horror for its own.


NORTHMEN
DANES
ANGLES
JUTES
SAXONS
NORTHMEN
FRANKS
HUNS
VANDALS
POLES
SLAVS
GOTHS
HUNS FROM ASIA
VISIGOTHS
OSTROGOTHS
SLAVS
BURGUNDIANS
LOMBARDS
OSTROGOTHS
VISIGOTHS
CASPIAN SEA
BLACK SEA
Constantinople
SUEVI
ALANS
VANDALS
VISIGOTHS
VISIGOTHS
Rome
VISIGOTHS
PERSIA
VANDALS
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ARABIA
RED SEA
MASS MOVEMENTS OF EUROPEAN RACES
FOURTH TO ELEVENTH CENTURIES
THE MAP SPECIALTY CO

PART III

THE MIDDLE AGES, 500-1500 A.D.

CHAPTER XXI

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Roman Civilization Littoral—Medieval Civilization Continental—Age of the Caravan Trade—Age of Knighthood—Extension of Three World Religions—The Peculiarity of Mohammedanism—Last Mass Movements of Population.

The Roman Empire was the last of the series of great despotisms that began in the valley of the Tigris and Euphrates and spread westward. It marked for all time the peak of civilization in Mediterranean lands. It may be called littoral, from Latin *litus*, 'shore', because it never penetrated at any point very deep into the great land core of Europe or Asia. At the same time that the Roman emperors ruled from the Palatine Hill in Rome, or from the palaces of Constantinople, there flourished a similar littoral civilization along the coasts of the Indian Ocean and the China Sea. This was an age when the East and the West endeavoured to get in touch with each other by shore navigation. In 166 A.D. a Roman embassy made its way to Chinese ports by way of the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. In 226 A.D. a similar embassy was despatched. Both had gone in the interests of trade, though neither accomplished anything permanent.

Just as the Roman civilization was littoral, so the next was continental in character. It may be called Eurasian, because it embraced Europe and Asia and extended from Spain to China. All of Africa south of the Sahara Desert may be omitted from the picture, because it began to figure in World History only in the nineteenth century. The American continents were as yet unknown; it was their discovery in 1492 that marked the termination of this period and the beginning of the next. Thus for the space of approximately 1,000 years, from 476 to 1492, or in round

numbers, from 500 to 1500, the scene of World History is the great land-mass of Europe and Asia.

These thousand years were the age of the caravan trade between the ports of the Levant and the cities of India and China. It is the age of the great territorial empires of Central Asia, the Mongol Empire that reached from the Baltic to the China Sea, the Pathan Empire in India, and the Turkish Empires in Western Asia. It is an age of famous travels and explorations by land. The Polos, of whom Marco Polo became the most famous, fared from Venice to what is now Peking or Peiping. Kings of Spain were sending gifts to despots of India and kings of France sent embassies to the Great Khan in the Mongolian Desert.

These thousand years were also the age of walled cities, fortified castles, large estates ruled by noble lords, and of land armies, for navies were lacking. It witnessed for the first time the general use of the saddle, the stirrup, and suits of chain-mail or steel armour. From Spain to China men fought on horseback as well as on foot. They undertook great wars by land and marched the breadth of continents to fight each other. Men journeyed from Britain to fight in Palestine against men whose original homes had been in Central Asia.

The same age is characterized by the extension of the three great World Religions, Christianity, Buddhism, and Mohammedanism. The first arose within the confines of the Roman Empire, in Palestine, and spread westward along the great Roman roads and routes of trade as far as Britain. To the eastward it even reached China, but only in a slender stream. In the East its great competitor was the religion of Buddha, which originated in India centuries earlier but began to flourish in China only after the Christian era was well under way in the West.

Between Christianity in the West and Buddhism in the East arose a great rival in Mohammedanism. In origin this was the latest, for its founder died in 632 A.D., but it

spread with greater rapidity. This was due to the fact that its missionaries were armies of horsemen. It was a religion of the sword and the lance, and not of a new creed alone. Without the Arab horse it would never have conquered the tribes of the Sahara, nor recruited them to conquer Spain. Eastward it penetrated deep into Asia, wherever men rode horses, but only a slight invasion reached China by sea. In cold climates it never flourished. It is a tropical or semi-tropical religion.

Another feature of this millenium was this, that within its limits occurred the last great mass movements of population. The races were finally settling down to reside permanently in the regions where we now find them. For example, at the beginning of this period the Angles and Saxons were living in northern Germany; by the eighth century they were settled in England for all time. In like manner the Franks had left the region around the mouth of the Rhine and taken possession of a large part of France. The Lombards abandoned their homes in Central Europe and settled down in Northern Italy for good and all. Down to this epoch of World History, as a general rule, emigration and war were inseparable. Only in the modern period did emigration become a peaceful process.

CHAPTER XXII

MASS MOVEMENTS OF EUROPEAN RACES

Prejudice of Roman Historians Against the German Races—The Germans as Builders—The Inland Forests and Plains—Home-Land of the Germans near the Baltic—German Tribes Semi-Nomadic, Semi-Agricultural—The Evidence of Julius Caesar—The Annual Spring Raids—Migrations Simultaneous in Europe and Asia—First Migrations among the Remoter Tribes—Division of the Goths into Visigoths and Ostrogoths—Wanderings of the Visigoths—Vandals, Suevi and Slavs—The Vandal Kingdom in Africa—Movements of the Slavs—Franks, Burgundians, Angles and Saxons—Habits of the Northmen—the Northmen in Iceland and America—The Norman Conquest of England.

It is customary to classify the German races who overthrew the Roman Empire as barbarians, and to speak of them as destroyers. This attitude is natural, because the men who wrote about them were Roman citizens; we of modern times share in the prejudice because we have been habituated to regarding history from the Roman point of view.

Our sympathy for the calamities of the Roman civilization are not unjustified, but it should not blind us to the fact that the invading barbarians were our own ancestors. They were the forefathers of the chief European races whose life and thought have been conquering the rest of the world since the discovery of America. They were destroyers, but they were also builders. To erect a new structure, it is often necessary to tear down the old. It was so in their day. They were coarse and uncultured men, but they were neither cowardly nor unintelligent. They did little planning but the unseen power that gives direction to the course of history was employing their labour. They were all the time weaving a fabric unknown and unseen by themselves.

Just as the first cities of men came slowly into being beside great rivers of water, the Nile, the Euphrates, the

Indus, and the Yangtse, so in this age of which we are now writing the inland forests and the plains are the cradles of the coming races. In the West the cradle was in Germany, in the East in the Arabian Peninsula and in the bleak and desolate deserts of Central Asia.

The home-land of the German barbarians lay on the Baltic Sea. It included what is now Denmark and the southern part of Norway and Sweden. On the mainland it extended from the Baltic to the Danube River and from the Rhine to the Vistula. On the west side was a region that had long been in the Wheat Area. On the east was the great expanse of Russia, where the inhabitants were still nomadic. This was part of the Horse and Cattle Area.

Under these circumstances it is not astonishing to learn that the German tribes were semi-nomadic. We have an eye-witness of their habits in the person of Julius Caesar, who spent almost ten years, between 58 and 49 B.C., as their close neighbour in Gaul. He makes it clear that they were not yet converted to agriculture. The truth is that they had an inferiority complex towards civilization:

> They have no enthusiasm for agriculture, and the greater part of their diet consists of milk, cheese, and meat. No man has a definite plot of land nor fixed boundaries, but the magistrates and nobles year by year assign to the tribes, their kinsmen, and such others as have joined with them, as much land and in such places as seems good to them, and in the following year they compel them to move. To justify this practice they allege various reasons: for fear that through continuous residence they may lose their enthusiasm for arms and fall in love with agriculture; for fear the more powerful men may conceive an ambition to possess wide estates and expel the weaker from their holdings; for fear they may build houses better adapted to protect them against extremes of cold and heat; for fear the lust of wealth may arise, out of which division and dissension is born; to the end that they may keep the common people content, since each sees that his own advantages are on a level with those of the most powerful.

This deliberate hostility to a settled life must have been fostered for many centuries. The necessity of changing their residence every year kept the tribes continually moving about within the confines of Central Europe. The

call to arms was sounded every spring. The marauding tribe, if repulsed, turned back; if successful, it often pushed on and on. It has already been mentioned that to this same Germanic population the conquerors of ancient India belonged, and also the Medes and Persians, the Greeks and the Romans, but the migrations of these tribes may easily be as remote as 2000 B.C. More recent had been the movements of the Celts or Gauls. They invaded Italy about 500 B.C., and also mingled with native populations in Spain to form the Celtiberians. They were driven out of Italy by the Romans and rejoined their kinsmen in Gaul. Their point of dispersion was the Rhine valley, and they may originally have come from Scandinavia.

It was in the later days of the Roman Empire that these restless semi-agricultural races of Western Europe began to make their last removes. The mysterious impulse that set them in motion was shared by the races of Central Asia. It was a phenomenon common to the whole Eurasian landmass, and this circumstance bestows a geographical unity upon this momentous chapter of history. For the sake of clearness it is best to treat separately of the European and the Asiatic movements, but it must be kept in mind that while hundreds of thousands of wild horsemen were sweeping southward and westward across the bleak deserts of Central Asia with their families and their cattle, at the very same time the long congested lines of armed men and ox-carts were winding their tedious way from the forest lands of Central Europe into the smiling fields of prosperous Roman provinces. The sun was setting on the last and greatest empire that ever flourished on sunny Mediterranean shores, but the slow dawn of a new day was breaking over the mistier landscapes of the North.

It is notable that of the Germanic races which then began to thrust their way into front pages of history the names were almost unknown to ancient explorers like Julius Caesar. With few exceptions they were not the tribes

that for centuries had fringed the long-defended Roman ramparts along the Rhine and the Danube, but their virile and untamed kinsmen of the backlands. Foremost among these were the Goths, whose name became for all time the symbol of all that was barbaric and not Greek or Roman.

The ancient home of the Goths was probably in Sweden, and an island in the Baltic still bears the name of Gotland. In the middle of the second century before Christ they were to be found south of the Baltic around the mouth of the Vistula. Soon afterwards the wanderlust seized them anew and they trekked southward to milder climates, dividing into two bands, the Ostrogoths, or East Goths, who found a temporary home around the Dnieper River north of the Black Sea, and the Visigoths or West Goths, who settled temporarily north of the Danube in its lower course. During these sojourns they learned much from the contact with the Roman civilization of Constantinople.

The Visigoths anticipated their eastern kinsmen in making the next move. Towards the end of the fourth century they crossed the Roman frontiers, dropped southward for a pillaging tour through Greece, and spent two years in such historic cities as Athens, Corinth and Sparta. They chanced to have at this time a brilliant leader named Alaric, a master-robber. Turning westward from Greece he made three inroads into Italy. The last of these resulted in the capture of Rome, 410. The death of Alaric in southern Italy the same year interrupted his plan to invade Sicily and Africa. Three years later his tribesmen went north, entered Gaul, and were permitted to settle around Toulouse. By the first quarter of the fifth century they were ruling the West from the Loire River in France to the Straits of Gibraltar. They were not, however, the first barbarians to enter Spain.

They had been preceded by the Vandals, a German tribe unknown in Caesar's time. On the way westward they had been joined by the Suevi, who had looked on Roman ramparts for four centuries, and by the Alans, a mysterious

race from Asia, who were retreating before the Huns. In 406 this strangely assorted trio broke into Gaul, and for three years ranged the country, taking what suited their need or fancy. In 409 they entered Spain and there remained. The Suevi took the north-west corner of the peninsula for their share, and long survived. The Alans accepted what later became Portugal, and the Vandals the rest.

Then came the Visigoths, who made life so unsafe for the Vandals and Alans that, with 80,000 souls, they took ship and entered the fertile Roman margin of Africa. It chanced that a leader appeared among them of true barbarian ferocity and craft, named Genseric. In 455 he organized a fleet, crossed the sea and sacked Rome, but this Vandal kingdom lasted only a few decades. The story of it is an episode, not a chapter, of history.

The room vacated by the Visigoths in the lands of the lower Danube valley had been occupied by their kinsmen, the Ostrogoths, desperately harassed by the Huns from Asia. With the consent of the Emperor in Constantinople they presently crossed the Danube and took possession of the country around the head of the Adriatic, where they remained for a century. They continued in friendship to the Empire and furnished soldiers for the legions. In 488 A.D. a leader of their race named Theodoric, a capable general with a Roman military training, was commissioned to expel Odoacer, a German war-lord, from Italy. In this he succeeded and then took charge of the government himself, receiving the title of "patrician" from the Emperor; in his own right he was King of the Goths. He performed his duties with vigour, dignity and justice, and has commanded the admiration of all who read his story in detail. He was tolerant in religion.

It would have been well for Italy if such a monarchy had continued, but after Theodoric's death in 526 a strong emperor named Justinian (527-565) conceived the project of renewing the whole Roman Empire. His generals man-

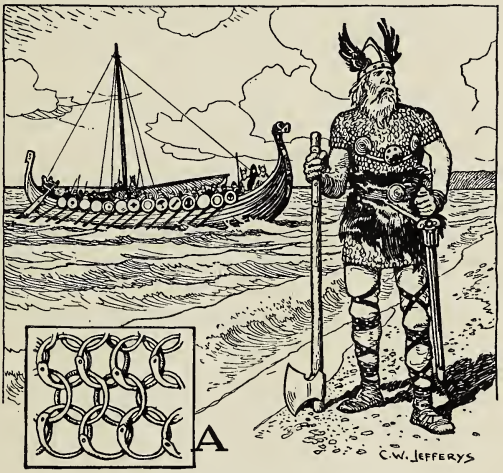
aged to overthrow the Vandal kingdom in Africa (534 A.D.), and the Gothic kingdom in Italy (553 A.D.) This only made room for the Lombards, who settled in the Po valley. This was the last German tribe to invade Italy.

It need hardly be said that these wholesale migrations of Germans to the westward left inviting gaps in the lands of Central Europe. These gaps were filled by the Slavs, whose original home lay to the east of the Germans in what is now Russia. The Slavs were a fair-haired race and quite distinct from the black-haired Mongols beyond their eastern borders. They lived in huts and kept bees and swine. They cultivated the land, though hunting and fishing still furnished an important part of their diet. They were too far distant from the Roman frontiers to interest the ancient historians to the same degree as the Germans and Huns. Consequently less is known of their movements. Between the fourth and seventh centuries, however, they took possession of what is now Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia. These parts on older maps are marked as Poland, Bohemia, Moravia and Serbia. They constitute a solid oblong of land running north and south from the Baltic to the Adriatic. This block, lying between the vigorous European states and Russia, was doomed to a very unhappy history.

While the blue-eyed Goths were injecting fresh blood into the populations of the South, and the Slavs were filling up the spaces vacated by them, their northern kindred were founding kingdoms in the North. The Burgundians had already come from the east through the territory of other German tribes to establish themselves around Lyons (414-443 A.D.). The Franks, who gave their name to France, had come from the lower Rhine region by the year 420 A.D. The Angles and Saxons from northern Germany began to pour into Britain after the Roman legions were withdrawn about 410. The space of two or three centuries had elapsed when the Northmen and the Danes began to

follow in their wake, and English clergymen began to pray, "From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord, deliver us."

The Northmen were farmers and navigators. They preserved the immemorial custom of setting out to rob their neighbours every spring. Their plan of life in general may be gathered from the following extracts:



VIKING WARRIOR AND SHIP OF THE NORTHMEN
(A) Chain armour in detail.

It was Sweyn's wont at that time that he sat through the winter at home in Gairsay, and there he kept always about him eight men at his beck. He had so great a drinking-hall that there was not another as great in all the Orkneys. Sweyn had in the spring hard work, and made them lay down very much seed, and looked much after it himself; but when that toil was ended he fared away every spring on a viking voyage, and harried about the Southern Isles and Iceland, and came home after midsummer; that he called spring-viking. Then he was at home until the cornfields were reaped down, and the grain seen to, and stored; then he fared away on a viking voyage, and then he did not come home until the winter was one month spent, and that he called his autumn-viking.

Sweyn and his men pulled up to the keels, and offered them battle. Little came of the defence of the Englishmen before Sweyn gave the word to board. Then the Englishmen were made

prisoners. And then they robbed them of every penny which was aboard the keels, save that the Englishmen kept the clothes they stood in and some food, and went on their way afterwards with the keels, but Sweyn and his men fared to the Southern Isles, and shared their war spoil. They sailed from the West with great pomp. They did this as a glory for themselves when they lay in harbours, that they threw awnings of English cloth over their ships. But when they sailed into the Orkneys they sewed the cloth on to the forepart of the sails, so that it looked in that wise as though the sails were made altogether of broadcloth. This they called the broadcloth cruise. Sweyn fared home to his house in Gairsay. He had taken from the keels much wine and English mead.[1]

The Northmen very nearly succeeded in bringing North America into the range of European history about the year 1000. They had a colony in Iceland as early as 874 A.D. Eric the Red discovered Greenland and gave it a good name for the sake of attracting settlers. His son, Leif Ericsson, visited North America, but from the surviving accounts it is impossible to say how far south he sailed. America's time had not yet come.

The last of the great migrations in the West was made by the Normans. In 911 A.D. a viking chieftain named Rollo was recognized by the Franks as the ruler of the land north of the Seine along the Channel. The invaders accepted Christianity and quickly adopted the French language. In 1066 Duke William of Normandy crossed the Channel and defeated the English king, Harold, at the battle of Hastings. There were no more mass movements of population after this date. Thus ended an epoch in the history of Europe that must have lasted at least 3,000 years. It is believed that the Aryan kinsmen of the Germans may have invaded India as early as 2400 B.C. That virile Indo-European core of population, whatever may have been its original homeland, bred the dominant peoples of all Ancient History, Aryans, Medes, Persians, Greeks, Romans, and Celts, and has become since historical times the parent of the great nations of Europe.

[1]The Orkneyingers' Saga, translated by Sir G. W. Dasent.

CHAPTER XXIII

MASS MOVEMENTS OF ASIATIC RACES

THE HUNS.—Home-Land of the Huns North-West of China—Their Knowledge and Discipline—The Tactics of the Mounted Archers—The Raiding Empire of Attila in Europe—The White Huns in India, 470 A.D.

THE ARABS.—Their Home-Land East of the Red Sea—The Annual Spring Raids—Arabia the Impenetrable—Asia the Home of Religions.

THE RISE OF ISLAM.—Doctrines of the Koran, Bible of the Arabs—Life of Mohammed, the Founder—Islam a Religion of Horsemen—Equipment of Arab Horsemen—Development of Conquest out of Raids.

ARAB CONQUESTS.—An Expanding Area of Conquests—Conquest of Spain—Conquests in Persia and India—Mohammedanism a Religion of Southern Lands.

THE SELJUK TURKS.—Home-Land of the Turks in Central Asia—Conquest of Mesopotamia, Palestine and Egypt—Their Contempt of Culture.

While the Germanic races were milling around in Central Europe and throwing off large units of population to found new kingdoms along the Atlantic coast, mass movements of population in Asia were taking place upon even a larger scale. The distances traversed were much greater, because Asia is much larger than Europe, vast stretches of desert are frequent, and forests and marshes infrequent. It was not uncommon for Asiatic hordes of mounted fighters to operate two thousand miles from their base, living off the country. It must be remembered also that the vast interior of Asia is the original Horse and Cattle Area of Pre-history. Its inhabitants may be compared to the Plains Indians of North America, especially the terrible Sioux tribes. Like the Sioux, the Asiatic nomads did not practise agriculture but lived entirely off the herds. Their homes were where they pitched their tents.

The Huns (or Tatars or Tartars)

On the other hand the Asiatic tribes of the early Christian era were far in advance of the American Indian in civilization. They were the pupils of the Chinese just as the German tribes of the West were the pupils of the Romans and Greeks. Of all the Asiatic wanderers the most notorious in the annals of the West were the Huns. Their home-land seems to have been situated at the north-west angle of China, where, to shut them out, the Great Wall was begun in the third century B.C., but they ranged so far to the west in the fifth century that their outlandish faces and shaggy ponies became familiar to Greeks, Germans and Romans from the Black Sea to the Rhine River.

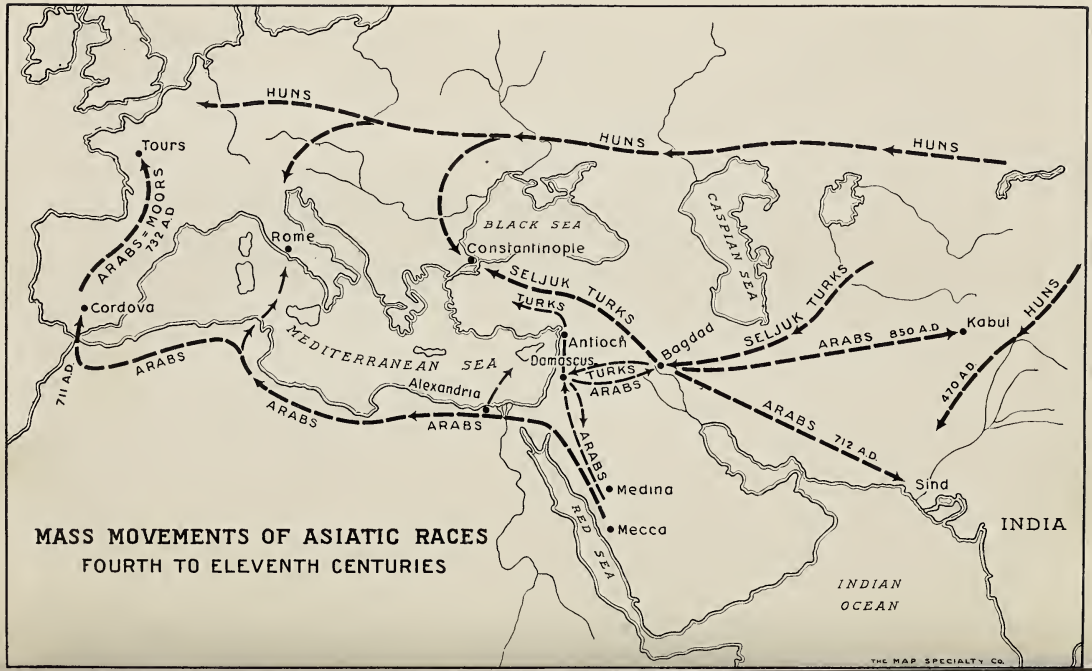
Greek and Roman writers thought these weird horsemen infinitely more terrible than the European barbarians. Their consequent invectives against Hunnish barbarities are fully justified, but need not blind us to the recognition of the genuine knowledge possessed by these ruthless invaders. It is true that they thought no more of taking a human life than of killing a steer, but their armies were not mere orderless hordes, blindly trampling down, like cattle in a stampede, everything that happened to lie in their path. Their art of war was highly developed.

It was the utter strangeness of their tactics and their weapons that baffled the Greeks and Romans. In the first place, they were all mounted on horseback, and in the second place, they used Chinese saddles, stirrups and bows. Their squadrons of horsemen rushed upon the legions in seeming disorder but with perfect understanding. They discharged their arrows into the faces of the foe, wheeled around and shot more arrows as they retreated. They returned with equal impetuosity and repeated these tactics until the enemy was dismayed. Then they dashed in with spears and swords. which they used with matchless dexterity. No foot soldier could stand against them, and the western cavalry, without saddles or stirrups, was useless to combat them. It

was from them that the use of saddle and stirrups was learned in the West.

It was the raids of the Huns in the valley of the Dnieper that set the Visigoths in motion towards the end of the fourth century. It was shortly afterwards that Attila, the Scourge of God, came to the fore. He established a raiding empire of the Asiatic type in the region between the Black Sea and the Rhine. He even threatened the Greek capital, Constantinople, but his armies were not equipped to capture walled cities. The limit of his westward thrust was reached in Gaul, where he was repulsed at the battle of Châlons, 451 B.C., which is ranked by modern historians among the decisive battles of World History. It was the turn of the tide for Attila, who died two years later. He had robbed rather than ruled, and his empire, which extended only so far as he could raid, fell apart at his death. The legacy of Hunnish invasion was the saddle and the stirrup, without which medieval knights in armour could never have ridden horses in war and in tournaments. The remnants of the Hunnish people in the valley of the Danube became Christians.

Simultaneous with the sweeping conquests of Attila in Europe was a great Hunnish invasion of India. It seemed in those days as if all frontiers were breaking down and all races were on the move. The White Huns or Ephthalites came down by the Khyber Pass and overthrew the famous Gupta kingdom about 470 A.D. This was but a single phase of a great plan of conquest that embraced Persia and as many as forty countries eastward of that country towards China. It was but one of a series of similar empires in Central Asia that followed one another throughout the period between the decline of the Roman Empire in the West and the discovery of America. India threw off the dominion of the White Huns in 528 A.D., but wave after wave of invasion from Central Asia followed at various intervals and without cessation.


HUNS
HUNS
HUNS
Tours
ARABS = MOORS 732 AD
Rome
Cordova
711 AD
ARABS
ARABS
ARABS
ARABS
ARABS
ARABS
BLACK SEA
Constantinople
CASPIAN SEA
SELJUK TURKS
TURKS
SELJUK TURKS
SELJUK TURKS
Antioch
Damascus
Alexandria
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
TURKS
ARABS
Bagdad
ARABS 850 AD
Kabul
HUNS
470 AD
ARABS 712 AD
Sind
INDIA
Medina
Mecca
RED SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
MASS MOVEMENTS OF ASIATIC RACES
FOURTH TO ELEVENTH CENTURIES
THE MAP SPECIALTY CO.

The Arabs

While the tribes of Asia were racing westward and southward in the deep interior of the continent, and in the far west the German tribes were making their last removes, a portentous change was becoming imminent among the Arabs. It seemed in this age as if no part of the Eurasian land-mass could endure quiet. The home-land of the Arabs was the bleak and barren peninsula which is shut off from the rest of the world by the Red Sea, the Indian Ocean and the Persian Gulf. This forbidding area, which to this day only a few Europeans have ever penetrated, has been one of the breeding places of distinguished races. Thence came the Hebrews, the Tyrians, the Sidonians, the Arameans, the Assyrians, the Chaldeans, and the Elamites. Nevertheless a core of population always remained behind to restore the race and build up a new surplus of manhood for fresh emigration.

The Arabs practised a custom common to almost all primitive races. They went raiding every spring. The fertile margins of the desert respond quickly to moisture, and the winter pastures rapidly restore vitality to man and beast. The young men would assemble around their sheik and set out to rob their neighbours of their cattle, rugs, jewels and weapons. If the raid succeeded, they went farther. If it failed they turned back. If the sheik gained a reputation for succeeding, he easily secured followers. If sufficient success attended him, he might become a conqueror, settle permanently in a neighbouring land and establish a kingdom. This process was repeated over and over again in the Near East, and it was also repeated throughout the length and breadth of the Eurasian continent. The Germanic tribes raided their neighbours or the Roman provinces. The Angles and Saxons raided Britain, and the Danes and Northmen raided the lands of the Angles and Saxons. The tribes in Central Asia raided China, or their weaker neighbours.

The Arabs stood to the more civilized races around them as the Germans to the Romans, the Scythians to the Greeks, and the Huns and Mongols to the Chinese. They lived on the margin of the culture and refinement of Egypt, Syria and Asia Minor. The immemorial routes of trade ran to the right and left of them by land and sea. The old caravan route from Egypt by way of Damascus to Babylon skirted the northern crescent of their desert. The commerce of Egypt and India followed their shores through the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. Out of their hinterland came the camel trains with loads of incense and spices, manned only by Arabs. Even Caesar Augustus was not strong enough to conquer them. Their country remained, as it is to-day, almost impenetrable. Only in 1931 did a European for the first time succeed in crossing its 900 miles of desert from sea to sea. Yet a conquering religion was to be born in that desert and to spread over a large portion of Africa and Asia, the religion of Islam, Mohammedanism. Arabia was a second Galilee, or Bihar (page 193).

Asia is the home of religions. The three World Religions, Buddhism, Christianity and Mohammedanism, have all been born there. The Semitic race, to which the Arabs belong, has always been intensely religious. The Semitic kingdoms and empires, Judea, Assyria, Chaldea, and others, have all been theocracies. This means that the priests share the rule with the king. The blessing of the god must be believed to rest upon the ruler, or his authority is denied. At an early date the laws of these kingdoms were reduced to writing, engraved upon tablets of stone or clay, and were believed to have been dictated to the earthly ruler by the ruler of heaven. The Arabs were idolaters but they were always inclined to believe in one god, supreme above the rest.

The Rise of Islam

The founder of Mohammedanism, like Jesus, was a humble man, born 570 A.D. He was a camel driver, poor,

uneducated, and an orphan, but he improved his station in life by marrying a widow of some wealth. He was forty years old before he definitely assumed the role of a prophet, but he was not ill prepared for it. He had done much thinking, and was familiar with the teachings of the Jews and of Jewish or other Christians. His utterances, embodied in the Koran, the Arabic Bible, assume belief in most of the essential doctrines of Jews and Christians, the unity of God, the immortality of the soul, the creation and fall of man, the resurrection of the dead, the judgment, heaven and hell. A very striking similarity to Christianity lies in the insistence upon submission of one's self to God; Islam, the correct name of Mohammedanism, means "submission". A follower of the faith is called a Moslem (Arabic *muslim*), which means "one who has surrendered himself".

For a time Mohammed was regarded as a madman, and his first converts included only poor people and his wife and children. In 622 A.D. his sermons against idolatry were so resented that he was forced to flee from Mecca, his birthplace, to Medina, where he had friends. This flight of the Prophet, or Hegira, became in later days an event of supreme importance, like the birth of Jesus in western lands, and the years were numbered from it. There was justification for this choice. In Medina his public teachings were so favourably received that he was elected chief magistrate and became a fighting preacher, a role that his race understood only too well. Thus religion and war were combined, and every Mohammedan war became a Holy War. This combination changed the course of World History, and is still a powerful factor in the affairs of mankind.

Mohammed's wars were against his own people. Gradually he gathered a fanatical army devoted to himself and to his religion, and it was mounted on horseback. The horse has so long been associated with the Arab that we easily forget how far distant Arabia was from the original Horse and Cattle Area of Asia. The only true and original

beasts of burden among the Arabs were camels. There was an Arab camel corps in the army of Xerxes when he invaded Greece in 492 B.C. The finest horses of those days belonged not to Arabia, but to Persia, and were bred on the lofty plains of Iran east of the Tigris River. The horse did not come into common use among the Arabs until the Christian



Photo from Ewing Galloway

MECCA AND THE KAABA

The number of pilgrims visiting Mecca annually is about one hundred thousand, chiefly from the Malay States, India, Persia, Syria and Egypt. They repeat many times the seven circuits of the Kaaba, the black building in the centre of the square, kissing the sacred stone that is built into one corner of it.

era, probably in the century preceding Mohammed's birth. A famous student of the East has said that Mohammed, if his people had remained camel-riders, might have preached until doomsday without founding a World Religion.

It goes without saying that no camel corps could have established an empire reaching from Spain to India. The Arab armies belonged in the same class as the Hunnish

hordes of Asia. They had saddles and stirrups, which made shock troops of the whole force. It is true that, unlike the Huns, they did not adopt the Chinese bow; they carried long steel-pointed lances, and presented the appearance of a Greek phalanx on horseback. Like the Huns, however, they possessed all the advantages of a style of attack to which the soldiers of the surviving Graeco-Roman Empire were unaccustomed. At close quarters they used the sword with deadly effect.

Mohammed himself made no foreign conquests. He captured Mecca in 630, and destroyed the idols, but he spared the Kaaba, a sacred cube of black stone, which was regarded with special veneration. It is now built into the wall of a square building in the centre of a square court, and every true Mohammedan is expected once in his lifetime to make a pilgrimage for the purpose of kissing it. The Prophet was succeeded after his death by various friends and members of his family in turn, who adopted the title of Caliph, which means "representative of the prophet". The seat of the early Caliphate was at Medina. Among the early Caliphs Holy Wars upon unbelievers became a regular occurrence. They took the form of raids into Egypt, Syria and Mesopotamia. The idea of world conquest was born later of the successes that attended these raids.

Arab Conquests

As the annual raids of the Arabs were transformed into wars of conquest it was natural that they should first penetrate into lands possessing climates congenial to the race and to armies of mounted lancers. Syria was the first to fall; Damascus was taken in 635, Jerusalem in 638, and Caesarea in 640. The turn of Egypt came next; Alexandria was taken in 646, and the half million precious volumes of Greek literature, housed in the Museum, were used to heat the public baths. From Egypt a fleet was sent to capture Cyprus, for the Arab was no mean sailor, and like the

Northman, raided and conquered by sea as well as land. Westward from Egypt the fluttering robes of the dark horsemen swept through Tripoli, Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco to the Atlantic. The prosperous Roman provinces were no more, and the native races, Berbers and Moors, adopted the religion of Islam.

In 711 an army of Berbers and Moors, under Arab generals, crossed over into Spain and overthrew the kingdom of the Visigoths, whose "blue blood," denoted by the blue eyes, nevertheless survived for a long time to be a source of pride among the vanquished nobles. In 732 the advance was pushed beyond the Pyrenees, and at Tours occurred a fierce conflict between Moslem and Christian, one of the decisive battles of World History. It was a victory for the Christian Franks under Charles Martel or "The Hammer". "The men of the North," wrote the chronicler, "stood as motionless as a wall; they were like a belt of ice frozen together, and not to be dissolved, as they slew the Arabs with the sword." In Spain the Arab dominion, later an independent Caliphate, commonly called Moorish, lasted until the year of the discovery of America. Its capital, Cordova, became a clearing house for the art, learning and industry of the East and West. If one were asked to name the great cities of the world during the Middle Ages, Cordova would be mentioned along with Constantinople, Bagdad, and the great centres of government in India and China.

The Arab capital of Bagdad, on the Euphrates, became the successor of Babylon and Nineveh. The Persian Empire of the Sassanid kings had fallen only two years after Damascus, in 637, which serves to remind us how irresistible armies become after a long series of victories. From Persia the conquerors pushed on into Central Asia and came in touch with China and India. The lower basin of the Indus, called Sind, was occupied in 712, and Kabul in Afghanistan in 850, but the story of the Moslems in India belongs to the twelfth century. In the meanwhile it had become manifest

that Medina and Mecca were too remote to be centres of Arab rule. The capital was shifted to Damascus in 661 and remained there until 749. In 750 it was moved to Bagdad, which became famed in story as the city of Haroun al-Raschid and the "Arabian Nights Entertainments".

To conquer is one thing; to rule successfully quite another. The Arab Empire was too enormous to hold together. By the end of the tenth century there were three Caliphs, one at Bagdad, one in Egypt, and the third in Spain. The first named went down in the thirteenth century and the others lasted until the sixteenth, but to this day the Moslems are numerous from India to Morocco. It may be noted by the way that the Arabs never settled in colder countries, not even in the chilly highlands of Asia Minor. Their range has always been confined to the shores of the Mediterranean and the Indian Ocean. Even their religion never made permanent gains in Europe, though it flourishes in Central Asia and Western China.

The Seljuk Turks

In Central Asia, to the north-east of Mesopotamia, the long valley of the Oxus River runs obliquely north-west and south-east, between the Sea of Aral and the Hindu Kush Range (map page 32). From the region beyond the Oxus came the last migration of Asiatic peoples, in the eleventh century, the Seljuk Turks. The fact that they were already Moslems did not hinder them from warring upon other Moslems. In 1040 they located their capital at Merv, south of the Oxus. From there they advanced to capture Bagdad and occupy Mesopotamia. The Caliph then lost his empire, though he remained the head of the Moslem faith. The Turks in their home-land were accustomed to endure cold, and the chilly highlands of Asia Minor, which the Arabs had never occupied, did not deter them. They defeated the Roman emperor of Constantinople at Manzikert in 1071. In 1084 they were taking Antioch, the chief port of Syria.

The forces of the Fatimite Caliphs of Egypt were driven out of Palestine, and the Holy Land of Christendom came into the possession of uncompromising enemies.

The Seljuk Turks had come out of the far interior of Asia, where their neighbours were Huns and Mongols. All they knew of civilization they had learned from passing caravans, and this was little. They were cavalrymen, equipped in the Hunnish fashion with saddles, stirrups, spears, bows, swords and daggers. They thought nothing of taking human life. They were unused to cities, to beautiful buildings, and to the industries of civilized men. Unfortunately, they were not mere raiders; they had come to stay. They chose as a capital the city of Nicaea, famous metropolis of Christianity, across the Hellespont from Constantinople. In the Holy Land, unlike the Arabs, they had little regard for the pilgrims who came from Europe to visit Bethlehem, Calvary or the Holy Sepulchre. Stories of their desecration of sacred places and of their torture and murder of Christians sent a thrill of pity and terror though Europe. This led to the Crusades, which were Holy Wars waged by Christian Europe against Moslem Asia. The cross of Christ was arrayed against the star and crescent of the Turk. For the first time in history religion had become a cause of war. "Think not that I am come to send peace on earth: I came, not to send peace, but a sword."

CHAPTER XXIV

THE BIRTH OF EUROPEAN NATIONS

Late Appearance of European Nations—Europe the Home of Nations, Asia of Empires—Diverse Sources of European Civilization—The Roman Background—Survival of the Roman Villa or Country House—Description of a Roman Villa—The Comforts of Roman Life Despised—Self-Contained Households—Destruction of Towns—Hunting the Sport of the Noble—Paralysis of Commerce—The Origin of Serfdom—The Church becomes a Landlord—Canon Law and Feudal Law.

The German Kings.—Clovis, King of the Franks, 481-511 A.D.—Conquest of the Franks—Other German Kingdoms—The Mayors of the Palace—King Pepin Founds the Papal States, 756—Charles the Great or Charlemagne, 742-814—His Coronation by the Pope, 800—Foundation of Schools—Division of his Empire at his Death—Origin of the Holy Roman Empire—Union of the Saxon Kingdoms in England—Other Kingdoms of Europe.

At the end of the ninth century, if the question had been asked, Who are the great rulers of the world, the answer would have been, the Emperor of China, King Amogharvarsa of the Deccan in India, the Caliph of Bagdad, and the Emperor of Constantinople. The nations of Europe, which now dominate the affairs of the greater part of the earth, were not yet known to the most enlightened people of the East. Yet they were being born in this era, and the purpose of this chapter is to show how they came into existence.

True nations are not unknown in Asia. The Jews were a nation in the tenth century before Christ. The Japanese are a nation to-day. Nevertheless, speaking generally, Asia is the home of empires and Europe is the home of nations. In the history of Asia it has been almost a law that every race that became a nation immediately launched itself upon the conquest of an empire. This was true of Persia and of Assyria. In Europe, on the other hand, true nations have arisen and have remained nations. The Spanish, French and English are examples, which have been true nations

for several centuries. It is not because these people consist of a single race that they are nations, because each of them has absorbed into itself large portions of several racial stocks. The English, for example, are composed of various elements, Iberians, Celts, Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Danes, Northmen, Norman French, Flemish and others. It is, therefore, not race that makes a nation. The Jews are a race but not a nation. Perhaps it is a long, continuous, and consistent political experience in a single country that makes a nation.

When the caterpillar, gorged on the mysterious essences of verdure, retires to become a butterfly, it is said that all the contents of his body first dissolve, and then reassemble themselves to take the shape of another creature. By some such alchemy the nations of Europe arose from the wreck of earlier institutions. There was a long period of incubation, which is sometimes called the Dark Ages, but all that was being torn down during this interval was to be built up again in other forms. There is no discontinuity in history. Whatever comes into being must be created out of what has been. Into the substance of European life, thought and government, many elements have been absorbed; some are too mysterious to be traced; others are obviously Roman, Greek, Christian or Germanic in origin.

In all the western provinces of the Roman Empire from Spain to Britain there was a native Iberian race with a culture of which we know little. They were conquered by the Celts and these in turn by the Romans. Then came that era of Roman Peace when roads were spread like a spider-web over the country, and the checker-board towns sprang up at every fort or point of vantage. The land was divided into estates of generous size and Roman colonists began to erect their comfortable villas. They brought the comforts and refinements of a people accustomed to education and to town or city life. The native races became their servants and learned their language. Latin, such as it was,

acquired from soldiers and merchants, became the tongue of all.

Before the Roman Empire fell the humanizing influence of Christianity had reached to its remotest parts in the West, and even beyond it to Ireland. The Visigoths had been converted by the preaching of Ulfila before they set out on the long march across Europe to settle in Spain. Whether the invading barbarians, however, were Christians or not, it mattered little. Even barbarians know well that it is fatal to destroy the means of life in the lands where they intend to live. The Franks in Gaul, for example, though they were bound to expel the Roman legions if they were to make their homes in the province, were already somewhat accustomed to agriculture, and they spared the farms. They needed roofs even if they were conquerors. So the large Roman estate, with its commodious house, survived from the one age to the next. The proprietor might have been slain along with some faithful followers, but the gaps in the ranks of the labourers could be filled from the followers of the new owners.

The Roman farmhouse was called a villa, and its plan was well developed even in the days of Cicero. It comprised a house and barns arranged around three sides of a rectangular court (Latin *cohors*, French *cour*). There would be separate cellars for oil and wine if the region was suitable for the olive and the grape. Around the whole complex would run a fence or wall, the strength of which depended upon the safety or danger of the neighbourhood. Cicero's friend Varro thus describes the fences, which were of four kinds, of living thorns, of stakes or logs, of the rampart type, or brick:

> The first kind of fence is living, consisting of thorns and brambles, which have living roots and will not fear the firebrand of the chance prowler; the second kind is rustic, made of wood but not living; either stakes are thickly set and interwoven with branches, or bored crosswise with long poles thrust through the holes; or logs are set closely together in the ground to form

a stockade. The third is of military type, consisting of a ditch and rampart; but the ditch is advisable only if it is ample to receive all the rainwater or has sufficient fall to take it off the land; the rampart on the inside of the ditch is a good idea if it is too steep to be easily surmounted. The fourth kind of fence is of stone, burnt brick, sun-dried brick, or mud and gravel set in moulds.

It was villas of this type that fell a prey to the Visigoths in Spain, the Franks in Gaul, and the Angles and Saxons in England. In many villas they would have found furnaces, but these would have aroused their contempt, because they boasted of being an open-air people. In some they may have found glass windows, but these also would have been broken in contempt. Glass windows, except in church buildings, were unknown in England from the fall of Rome until the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The rough and ready founders of Europe would also have made short work of destroying the earthenware dishes of the comfort-loving Romans. The daily task of dish-washing as known nowadays was in abeyance in western Europe for many centuries. Our ancestors were forest folk and preferred trenchers and bowls of wood. Dinner-plates and table-knives and forks did not come into common use until the eighteenth century, as a result of trade with China.

Nevertheless, the villa or farmhouse could not be abolished. For half a thousand years the wreathes of smoke arising from their ample fireplaces made landmarks in the atmosphere of the countryside just as before. Houses were built of planks, for the trade of the sawyer flourished among the Germans, a forest folk. The kitchens were enormous rooms with great raised fireplaces like the forges of blacksmiths. Back and forth before them the cooks moved busily preparing huge roasts of pork, mutton and beef, for our ancestors ate several kinds of meat at a meal. Elsewhere on the premises was the alehouse, where brewers and malsters prepared the drink for their lords. There were great ovens where vast quantities of bread were baked for all and sundry. To the servants the lord and lady were above all the pro-

viders of bread: the word lord means "loaf-ward" and the word lady means "loaf-maid". The servants attached to the villa were called "villains" (or "villeins"), which came to mean coarse, ill-mannered persons, and subsequently criminals.

The Roman towns, with their potteries and glass-works, passed quickly out of the picture. The rule invaders had no use for trifles so easily broken. Roman checker-board towns in general were incapable of self-defence. Few of them were walled, because they grew up in the days of the Roman Peace. From Britain, where many were walled, the legions had been withdrawn in the early fifth century. Elsewhere the wide, open streets, the small houses and shops, offered easy plunder to the undisciplined Vandals, Goths, Franks and Saxons. Those of the townspeople who escaped had no recourse but to seek refuge on the estates of the great landowners. There the sawyer, the carpenter, the blacksmith, the wheelwright, the wagon-maker, and the wood-worker found some use for his services. The Middle Ages might be called the Age of Wood, or at best the Age of Wood and Iron. Spinning and weaving were also done upon the premises. Factories were unknown. Every villa was a self-contained unit.

The chief occupation of the nobles were war and hunting. Wolves and bears still abounded in Britain and, in the forests of Central Europe, the wild boar. Deer were plentiful everywhere, and more varieties of them than now exist. The estates of the nobles covered thousands and tens of thousands of acres, and each landlord could pursue his sport on his own ground. To kill game was forbidden to all but the nobility. Leisure for hunting, however, was sometimes lacking. The forests sheltered robbers as well as big game, and order had to be maintained. There were kings of the land, of course, but their authority was not always highly respected. Nobles coveted each other's land and might take it by force. They quarrelled at their ban-

quets, and fought out their quarrels in more sober moments. Many a morning the grooms and armourers would be ordered to assemble before the door of the villa. There were as yet no castles.

It was in these fourth, fifth and sixth centuries, when the old order was dissolving and the new had hardly begun to take shape, that the far-flung commerce of the West became paralyzed. No man is more apprehensive than the trader. The first rumour that the Vandals were on the march would prevent, in the regions from which danger was expected, the departure of every ship, every cart, and every train of pack-animals. Moreover the marches of great hordes of Goths or Franks living off the country would destroy over a wide swath of land the purchasing power of every town and hamlet. Only the villas would be left, and the surviving inhabitants would be compelled to seek refuge where they could, and to begin life anew as the servants of the stronger. It was thus that the Roman system of slavery dissolved and took shape again as mediæval serfdom.

The serf (Latin *servus*) is a servant who lacks the right to leave, without the consent of his master, the land upon which he was born. Serfdom was no peculiar institution in the Middle Ages of Europe. It comes into existence wherever wandering races under powerful leaders settle down to live permanently among agricultural folk. It has existed since immemorial times in China and India. It prevailed in Russia from the sixteenth until the nineteenth century. The Germans in their own homes did not have serfs, because Julius Caesar tells us that the young men took turns cultivating the soil, and a different tract was selected for cultivation every year. This was all changed, however, when the German races migrated once and for all into Spain, Gaul and Britain. It was no longer possible for them to change their location every year. Nevertheless they still despised the labour of the fields and clung to the un-

written creed that only hunting and fighting were fit callings for a nobleman. To secure their livelihood they compelled the conquered people to toil for them and refused them permission to leave. The humble classes, on the other hand, knew very well that the only place where they could live in peace and receive their daily bread was on the estate of a powerful baron.

The nobles, however, were not the only landlords. Side by side with the new social and political pattern that was rising out of the old was the new religious pattern, the Christian Church. The Church first began to be a landlord when the Edict of Toleration (313 A.D.) removed the disabilities under which it had laboured as a forbidden religion. Church buildings were rapidly constructed. Pious people everywhere continued to make gifts of land, and the bishops began to accumulate valuable properties in Spain, France, Ireland, Britain and elsewhere. In addition to the bishops there were abbots, the ruling heads of monasteries. In some instances the monks themselves worked the soil, but when the estates became larger by successive gifts or by purchase the practice of serfdom was very naturally adopted. Thus a serf with his strip of land might be the tenant of a bishop, an abbot or a baron.

The barons, bishops and abbots alike became judges of the people on their estates. In the course of time they made laws to suit their several needs. Very often the baron was himself unable to write, but he would call in the clerk trained in Roman law and order him to write down such regulations as his interests demanded. This was characteristic of the Middle Ages, to put every law or contract into writing. The bishop or abbot, on the other hand, was likely to be an educated man, and so required no lawyer. He framed such regulations for his people as he thought fit. He might also receive orders from the Bishop of Rome, the Pope. All of these regulations were comprised under the name Canon Law. This prevailed in the courts of the

Church while the kings and nobles dispensed Feudal Law in their respective courts.

The German Kings

It was not to be expected that people who had despised a settled life and were accustomed to moving about should settle down all at once. When this at last became necessary the first authority they acknowledged was that of their own kings. The first king of the Franks who deserves mention was Clovis (481-511 A.D.), who had a touch of greatness in his character. His influence was manifest in the direction of order and a strong government. He yielded to the example of Rome and commanded the customs of his ancestors, what the Romans called the *mos maiorum,* to be written down. This was the Salic Law, which gave England a king as late as the year 1714. Clovis also took to wife a Burgundian princess of the Christian faith, allowed his children to be baptized, and finally, in gratitude for a victory over the Alemans, his nearest German enemies, submitted to baptism himself. This occurred on Christmas Day of the year 496, and three thousand of his followers were baptized at the same time. Such wholesale additions to the ranks of the Christians were not uncommon among the German peoples.

The Franks were a vigorous race. They gradually overcame the Burgundians to the south and the Visigothic kingdom that centred around Toulouse, thus winning the right to bestow their name upon the whole country once called Gaul. France was destined to be the first nation to arise out of the fusion of German and Roman customs and laws.

By the year 525 A.D. the barbarians were ruling the whole of the Western Roman Empire, namely, the Franks in Gaul, the Ostrogoths in Italy, the Visigoths in Spain, and the Vandals in Africa. About this time a great man happened to be born to the purple in the Eastern Roman Empire. This was Justinian (d. 565 A.D.), who over-

threw the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy and the Vandal kingdom in Africa. This, however, was only an interlude. The Lombards soon came down from Central Europe, and established another German kingdom in Italy. Meanwhile, in Britain the Angles and Saxons were busy. They were a ruder people than the Franks, being farther removed from the Roman frontiers. They found a Roman province without legions. For two centuries they fought with one another and with the Celts. By the seventh century there were seven of their little kingdoms, Kent, Sussex, Essex, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria. Union was slow to come, and still more slow the birth of the English nation. Wales, Scotland and Ireland remained Celtic.

The story of the Frankish kings after Clovis resembled that of the early Roman emperors; it was found difficult to raise good sons in a palace. Just as the Prefects of the Guard in Rome were sometimes stronger than the emperor, so the Mayor of the Palace, as the highest official was called, was often stronger than the king. It was one of these Mayors, Charles Martel, or the "Hammer", who beat back the Arabs at the battle of Tours in 732 A.D.

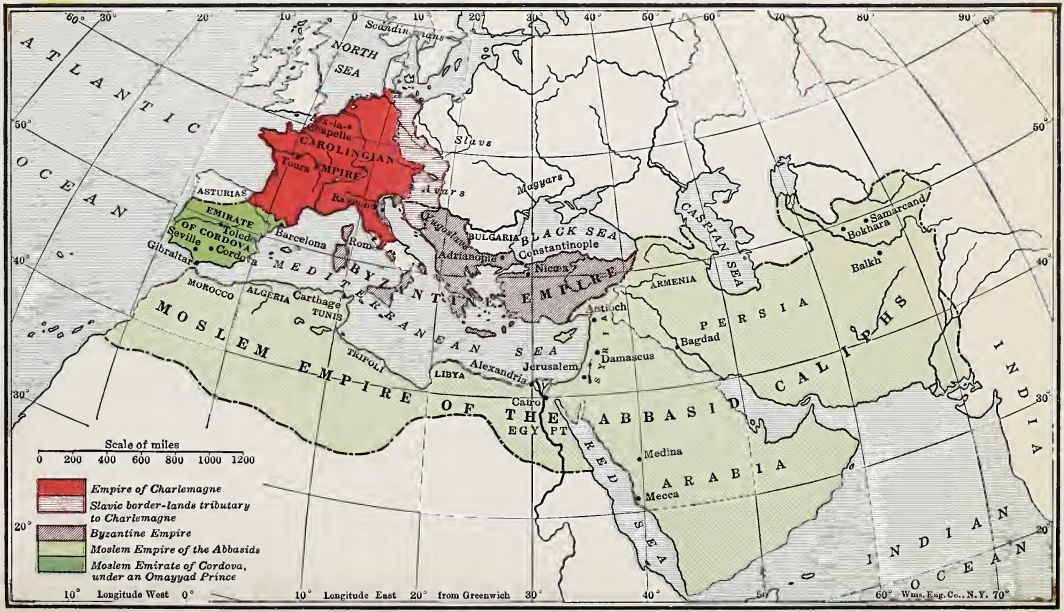
Pepin, son of Charles Martel, put an end to this comedy of the palace by deposing the nominal king and taking the throne himself in 751 A.D. This action was approved by the Pope of Rome, who needed the support of some strong temporal authority. The danger of the latter came from the Lombards, who were threatening the Eternal City. In 756 A.D. Pepin came down into Italy with a vigorous force, repulsed the Pope's enemies and made him a present of a long block of land extending from the Tiber in a north-easterly direction beyond Ravenna on the Adriatic. This territory became known as the Papal States and endured as a unit from 756 to 1870 A.D. During all this time the Pope was a temporal ruler like other kings of Europe.

It was the singular good fortune of Pepin to have a son with even more wisdom and ability than himself. This was

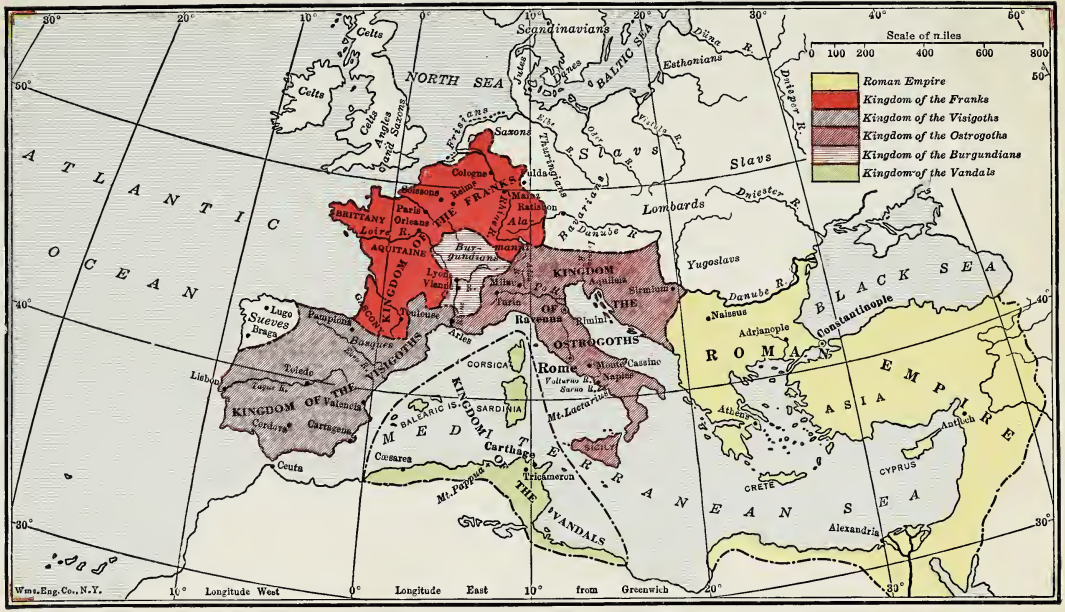
Charles the Great or Charlemagne (742-814 A.D.). He was a giant in stature, almost seven feet tall, and inclined to stoutness. Hunting and swimming were his favourite sports, and he avoided excesses of food and drink. German was his mother-tongue but he learned to read Latin and felt real esteem for scholars. It is the tradition, however, that he could not write.

Charlemagne has been represented in a painting with the sword in his right hand and the cross in his left. The image of the Roman Empire, combined with Christianity, floated in his mind. He made himself king of the Lombards in Italy in 774 A.D., crossed the Pyrenees and engaged with less success with the Moors, but he conquered a large part of Germany, and established an extensive empire. On Christmas Day in the year 800 A.D. he kneeled before Pope Leo III, in the old St. Peter's Church in Rome, and formally took the title of Emperor and Augustus. Court poets afterwards sang his praises in Latin verse and hailed him as the descendant of Aeneas, who founded Rome. Twelve years later he was even acknowledged by the Greek Emperor of Constantinople as the Roman Emperor of the West. In later history his German domain became the Holy Roman Empire and the title of Holy Roman Emperor endured until the time of Napoleon.

The reign of Charles witnessed a great revival of education. The pagan schools of the Roman Empire had perished along with the towns in which they flourished. Only in the monasteries were a few boys taught to read and write. Charles established a school in his palace and invited a great scholar named Alcuin of York to come and advise him. Another famous school was founded at Tours, and several others were opened in various parts of the imperial domain. The industry of copying manuscripts was revived, for there were as yet no printing presses, and hundreds of manuscripts in the libraries of Europe to-day may be dated in this ninth century.



CAROLINGIAN, BYZANTINE AND MOSLEM EMPIRES



German Kingdoms in Western Europe

One vital mistake of the French kings was repeated by Charles at his death. His dominions were divided among his three sons. There could be no permanent progress achieved so long as this German custom survived. The three heirs fought with one another and the empire fell apart. An incident of this disunion was important. Paris became the capital instead of Verdun. This remove led to the emergence of the French nationality as distinct from the German.

Across the Rhine the campaigns of Charlemagne had the effect of awakening a feeling of self-consciousness in the German people. In the following century Duke Otto of Saxony was strong enough to secure the support of Pope John XII of Rome, who in 962 A.D. crowned him, precisely as Leo had crowned Charles, as German King and head of the Holy Roman Empire. His domains did not include France, but only the German States of the North and the Lombard kingdom in Italy. This combination of Germany and Italy was destined to cost much shedding of blood without results of value.

In England, meanwhile, the first steps toward unity were taking place. The influence of France was manifest. Egbert, who became King of Wessex in 802, had served as a general under Charles the Great for thirteen years. He was able to unite the other six Saxon kingdoms under his rule. This was the age of the Northmen, or Vikings. Alfred the Great, one of Egbert's successors, distinguished himself in repelling their invasions. The Danes gave one king to England, Canute. Upon the death of Edward the Confessor in 1066 the throne was claimed both by Harold, Earl of Wessex, and by Duke William of Normandy. The latter secured the blessing of the Pope, advertised an expedition, and attracted a large number of adventurers to his standard. He crossed the channel and defeated Harold at the battle of Hastings (or Senlac). This event involved England in continental politics for five centuries.

The Baltic Sea was a very busy place in the early Middle Ages and carried on a brisk trade with Moslems in Central Asia by a land route across Russia. The Swedes had energy to spare and established kingdoms in Russia. Denmark and Norway were independent kingdoms. Scotland and Ireland were independent of England, as was also Wales. Some slight signs of nationality were visible in Spain. In the north-west corner the kingdom of Leon was independent of the Moors, as was also Castile in the centre. Portugal was beginning to emerge. Italy was still a round thousand years from unity; the Normans had conquered the south, the Pope ruled in the centre, and the north was part of the amorphous Holy Roman Empire. In eastern Europe were the weak kingdoms of Hungary, Poland and Russia. In brief it may be said that in all Europe only France and England were manifestly becoming nations.

CHAPTER XXV

CHRISTIANITY AND ISLAM

Survey of Europe in the Eleventh Century—Origin of Russia.

CHRISTIANIZATION OF THE BARBARIANS.—Nameless Missionaries of Roman Times—St. Patrick and St. Columba in Ireland—Bishop Ulfila Among the Visigoths—Augustine, first Archbishop of Canterbury (601-603)—St. Boniface among the Germans—Cyril and Methodius among the Slavs—Adherence of Russia to the Greek or Orthodox Church—Quarrels of the Roman and Greek Churches—Profounder Reasons for Separation.

THE CRUSADES.—The Crusades Genuine World Wars—Resemblances Between Christianity and Islam—Oriental Organization of Christendom—Feebler Organization of Islam—Immediate Causes of the Crusades—The First Crusade; the Holy Land occupied—Victorious Career of Saladin—Crusade of Richard the Lion-Hearted—Rivalry of Venice and Constantinople—The Moors Expelled from Spain, 1492.

The eleventh century is a point of vantage from which the progress of Europe may be viewed. Though the Moslems were still ruling in Spain, much progress elsewhere may be observed. England has been united under a single king and shows signs of becoming a nation, though Ireland, Wales and Scotland are still going their own way. France has developed a language of its own and feels itself an entity. The Germans have clung to their own language, which gives them a feeling of being a people distinct from the French. They belong to the Holy Roman Empire, which also includes Lombardy, in Italy. The Pope is ruling the Papal States from Rome to Ravenna. The Normans have the kingdom of Sicily and Naples. The Moslems have Africa. Furthermore, by this time the races have settled down. The Slavs have come out of Russia to the region between the Danube and the Adriatic. The Magyars, akin to the Finns, are already in Hungary. The Bulgarians, a Mongol race, have settled west of the Black Sea and close to Constantinople.

It was at the very end of this period that Russia came

into the picture under the name that we know. While the Northmen were raiding the British Isles in the ninth century their eastern kinsmen, the Swedes, were campaigning on the continent. They crossed the Baltic, overcame the Slavs, and established a capital at Kiev. They even threatened Constantinople by land and sea. These Swedes called themselves Rus, and it is believed that from this word we have the name Russia. They were in closer contact with the Eastern Roman Empire than with the West, and naturally became adherents of the Orthodox or Greek Catholic Church. They also adopted the Slavic language, which later became known as Russian.

Christianization of the Barbarians

To complete the survey of Western Europe at the close of the eleventh century it remains to speak of the spread of Christianity. The first missionaries of Spain, France and Britain are nameless. The new faith spread with little opposition from the Roman government. It was carried far and wide by slaves and citizens alike. In the outlying provinces there was little or no disposition to persecute. Even when orders were issued from Rome to hunt down the Christians and compel them to put the pinch of incense on a burning altar before the image of the reigning emperor, it was the usual practice for the Roman governors to ignore it. The governor might be a Christian himself, or have a Christian mother, as was the case with Constantine the Great. It is safe to say that the Christian faith was well established in Britain before the Roman legions were withdrawn about 410 A.D.

Traces of this primitive British church may be recognized in the traditions that cling to certain sites, such as Glastonbury, where "annals of good authority" recorded that a little wattle church of the Blessed Virgin had been erected in 166 A.D. The incoming Angles and Saxons were, of course, heathen, and the Christians retreated before them

to Cornwall and Wales. From there they sent missionaries to Ireland. St. Patrick was not a man of profound learning, though he knew Latin, but the Church of Ireland owed a heavy debt to his courage, enthusiasm and organizing genius. His labours (432-461 A.D.) were followed by a singular blossoming of Christian learning, which survived until the ninth century, when the Vikings came. The Irish monks busied themselves with copying manuscripts and developed a beautiful style of writing, of which specimens still survive.

St. Columba (521-597 A.D.), an Irish prince by birth, founded a monastery on the island of Iona and from there effected the Christianization of northern Scotland. He also founded monasteries, where monks lived in little bee-hive huts of wattle and mud, all enclosed by a wall for safety's sake. His followers spread the faith southward into Northumberland, and between them and Roman missionaries sent by the Pope the invading Saxons and Angles were brought into the fold.

Perhaps the earliest missionary whose name we know was Ulfila (d. 381), who worked among the Visigoths. Born in Asia Minor of a Christian family, he was taken captive when a boy by these barbarians, and carried away to what was their home at that time north of the Danube. From there he was sent back to Constantinople to be educated, and learned both Latin and Greek. At the age of thirty he was ordained a bishop and returned to his adopted people. Among them he laboured for forty-two years, with the result that when they migrated to Spain they were already somewhat Christianized. Part of the Bible of Ulfila, the only book in the Gothic tongue, still survives in the University of Upsala, Sweden.

It has already been mentioned how King Clovis of France received baptism in 496 A.D., along with thousands of his German followers. It was not until a century later that missionaries were sent from Rome to the Angles

and Saxons. The story runs that Pope Gregory the Great saw some fair-haired boys in Rome. "Who are they?" he asked. The answer came, "Angles". "No, not Angles but angels," he declared. The story is probably untrue but it was Gregory who sent Augustine to become the first known missionary to Britain in 597 A.D. He was well received and



SEVENTH-CENTURY CLERGYMEN

At the left is a deacon; in the middle, a priest; and at the right, a bishop.

became the first Archbishop of Canterbury (601-603 A.D.). These Roman missionaries found certain differences between their worship and that of the British clergy who had survived from the Roman occupation, particularly in respect of the date at which Easter was celebrated. After an assembly of the various clergy at Whitby in 664 A.D. the Roman rite was adopted, but the English Church has

never forgotten that its beginnings are far older than the mission of Augustine.

The Northmen who invaded England were quick to adopt English ways after they settled down, and naturally became Christians. It was English monks who carried the new faith to Norway and Sweden in the tenth century. At the same time the Danes were led to abandon their heathen ways, and even the Asiatic Magyars in Hungary submitted to the ministrations of Benedictine Monks. It was an Englishman named Winfred or Boniface who contributed most to the conversion of the Germans across the Rhine. Early in the seventh century he received from the Pope in person his commission to preach. He preached and taught for thirty years, founding monasteries and schools. Chief of these was Fulda, where the fires of learning were kept burning for many a year. In 754 A.D. he suffered martyrdom, a fitting crown to such a career.

It was not unnatural that Christianity should arrive later among the Slavs, who inhabited Russia, Poland, and the western Balkans. The pioneer missionaries among the Slavs in the West were two brothers, Cyril, a priest, and Methodius, a monk. They did for their Slavic people what Ulfila in the fourth century had done for the Goths, but they accomplished far more. They adapted the alphabet to the new language and made it possible for the Slavs to have a literature of their own. It goes without saying that they translated the New Testament and parts of the Old, to which were added hymns and forms of service. All this was done with the approval and authority of the Pope, for the Catholic Church was not yet divided between Rome and Constantinople. The chief scene of the labours of these brothers was what is now Czechoslovakia. In the next century, the tenth, Poland became the seat of an archbishop, the missionaries being furnished by converts of Cyril and Methodius.

The Russians are spoken of as the eastern Slavs. Their

first capital was Kiev on the Dnieper. This was accessible by water from Constantinople, and the ruling prince Vladimir, about the year 1000, had to wife the daughter of the Greek Emperor, Basil II. He adopted Christianity along with his twelve sons, and the nobles followed their example. In the same century a national Russian church, under the Patriarch of Constantinople, was set up, and this led the Russians to break relations with Rome. The western Slavs, north of the Danube, adhered to Rome and adopted Latin as the language of the liturgies. They also used the Latin alphabet. The Slavs south of the Danube, in what is now Yugoslavia, adhered to the Patriarch and used Greek letters. This was an unfortunate division.

The separation of the Roman and Greek Churches came about in this way. The Pope claimed to be the successor of Peter, the chief of the Apostles, which by implication meant that he was superior to all bishops everywhere. This claim was not admitted by the Patriarchs, although their history did not go back beyond the beginning of the fourth century, when Constantinople was founded. This difference was the seed of quarrels. From 726 until 842 A.D. there was a controversy over images. The use of these was condemned as idolatry in the East and their destruction was ordered. This campaign gave us the word "iconoclast", which means "image-smasher". The victory went to the Popes, and the use of images continued in both East and West. A more disastrous difference arose over the dismissal of a Patriarch by the Greek Emperor. The latter refused to accede to a request from the Pope that he should be restored. The final break occurred in 1054.

A deeper reason for the separation lay in the fact that East is East and West is West. Western Europe, the living heir of the Roman Empire, has always displayed conspicuous vigour and power to grow. The invading races, Celts, Franks, Angles, Saxons and Northmen, rude as they were, brought with them an inexhaustible vitality. The


30°
20°
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60°
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40°
30°
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
KINGDOM OF NORWAY
SWEDEN
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
JUTLAND
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
IRELAND
KINGDOM OF ENGLAND
English Channel
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
KINGDOM OF GERMANY
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
KINGDOM OF CASTILE
KINGDOM OF ARAGON
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
KINGDOM OF SICILY
CORSICA
SARDINIA
BALEARIC IS.
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
EMPIRE OF THE PRINCIPALITIES OF THE WEST
DOMINIONS
Aberdeen
Edinburgh
Glasgow
Durham
York
Chester
Dublin
Limerick
London
Canterbury
Boulogne
Bruges
Ghent
Utrecht
Bremen
Hamburg
Stettin
Cologne
Mainz
Prague
Nuremberg
Ratisbon
Vienna
Augsburg
Strasburg
Salzburg
Basel
Rouen
Paris
Orleans
Clermont
Bordeaux
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Arles
Narbonne
Marseilles
Lyons
Milan
Genoa
Florence
Pisa
Rome
Naples
Salerno
Palermo
Messina
Reggio
Syracuse
Malta
Barcelona
Valencia
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Malaga
Granada
Cordova
Seville
Toledo
Madrid
Lisbon
Oporto
Santiago
Tangier
Ceuta
Melilla
Fez
Morocco
Oran
Algiers
Tunis
Constantine
Tripoli
Longitude West
0°
10°
Longitude East

CHRISTEND


Scale of miles
0 50 100 200 300 400 500
Catholic Christendom
Orthodox Christendom
Islam
30°
40°
50°
60°
70°
Tchuds
Novgorod
Volga R.
Moscow
Braschimov
Polotsk
Dwina R.
Dnieper R.
Kiev
Dniester R.
Don R.
Volga R.
CASPIAN SEA
Cherson
Danube R.
Bulgarians
BLACK SEA
Sinope
Constantinople
Chalcedon
Adrianople
Nicomedia
Nicæa
Gallipoli
Abarca
Trebizond
Erzerum
GEORGIA
Tiflis
Kars
DOM. OF SHAH-ARMEN
Tabriz
AZERBIJAN
PERSIA
TURKISH PRINCIPALITIES
Caesarea
Tyana
Iconium
Sardis
Philadelphia
Smyrna
Ephesus
Laodicea
Tarsus
ARMENIA
Edessa
Mosul
KURDISTAN
Tigris R.
Bagdad
CALIPHATE
IRAK
Euphrates R.
Aleppo
Antioch
Myra
Homs
Tripoli
Damascus
Beirut
Tyre
St. Jean d'Acre
Jaffa
Ascalon
Jerusalem
Alexandria
Cairo
Nile R.
EGYPT
RED SEA
ARABIA
Basra
RHODES
KINGDOM OF CYPRUS
Candia
CRETE
Wms. Eng. Co., N. Y.
from Greenwich
30°
40°

ISLAM

Eastern Empire inherited the remnants of Mediterranean races and received Asiatic races less disposed to change. So the Greek Church prided itself on its orthodoxy and is customarily spoken of as the Orthodox Church. Though both Churches claim to be Catholic or "universal", the Church of Rome has always stressed its Catholicity. For this reason it is called the Roman Catholic Church. The difference of language, Latin in the West, Greek in the East, furthered the division.

The Crusades

The separation of the Churches took place in the same century as the first wars called Crusades. These were real World Wars because they affected diverse nations in both Europe and Asia and permanently affected the course of World History. The contestants were the Christian peoples of Europe and the Moslem races of Asia. Historians have recognized in this conflict a resemblance to the struggles between the Persian kings and the freedom-loving cities of ancient Greece. This comparison is enlightening. The Persian despots came with great armaments to extend their empire into Europe; they met with a long postponed retribution when Alexander the Great reversed the tables and set up his throne in Babylon. In a similar way the hosts of Islam had threatened Europe in the seventh century, only to be turned back. Now, in the eleventh century, European Christianity proclaimed a Holy War against Islam. Thus the tide of war throughout the ages ebbed and flowed between Europe and Asia. Time and again it became a question whether Europe should become Asiatic or Asia European. Modern commerce, however, and motor-cars have done more to assimilate the two continents than any wars of old.

The faith of the Moslem and the faith of the Christian, in spite of all their differences, bore marked resemblances. Each had its sacred book, the one the Bible and the other

the Koran. Both acknowledged Abraham and Moses as prophets, and both believed in one God. Both enjoined the practice of prayer and fasting. Both had their holy places, the one in Bethlehem and Jerusalem, the other in Medina and Mecca. Both of them enjoined upon their followers the virtue of going upon pilgrimages to their respective shrines. The truth is that the two religions were bound to be alike, because they both had their beginnings in Asia and among kindred peoples. The ancestors of the Jews had come out of the deserts where Mohammedanism was born.

The followers of Jesus Christ see only differences between themselves and the disciples of Mohammed, but the student of World History must regard the similarities as well. It is fatal to a true view of the course of history if it is forgotten that Christianity came out of Asia, and this is true alike of its creeds and its government. The organization of Christianity in Europe was based upon the pattern of the Roman Empire, and the Roman Empire had taken its pattern from Persia. All western Europe was divided by the Church into provinces, and each province was divided into dioceses, and over each diocese was a bishop. The diocese was divided into parishes, and in charge of each parish was a priest assisted by deacons. Just as the decrees of King Xerxes or a Roman Caesar were written down and carried by couriers to every governor and prefect everywhere, so the decrees of the Pope, called Bulls, were issued for every archbishop, bishop and priest. Europe had two governments, the one by kings, the other by the Church. It was a theocracy like ancient Judea, Egypt or Persia. Its pattern was Oriental. Its organization was far stronger than that of Islam, which had no bishops or priests to whom authority could be delegated.

The head of the Moslem faith, the Caliph of Bagdad, occupied a position like that of the Pope of Rome, at least until the coming of the Seljuk Turks, who took his tem-

poral power from him. He did not retain universal authority as long as the Pope, because in the eighth century, as a result of religious revolutions, rival Caliphs arose in Cairo and in Spain at Cordova. After this time his position resembled the position of the Pope after the Protestant Revolutions in Europe. It is customary to speak of these as the Protestant Reformation, but they correspond precisely with what are called the Moslem Revolutions in Islam. A difference of name must not be permitted to conceal a genuine similarity. Again, just as Europe could still be called Christian in spite of religious divisions, so the Moslem faith remained as a bond of unity, notwithstanding the division of power among the Caliphs. Islam, though divided against itself, was a unit as opposed to Christianity.

The Crusades began towards the end of the eleventh century, when the enthusiasm of the young Christianity was at its strongest in Europe, and the Turks in Asia Minor were threatening Constantinople. The Arabs had not interfered with the pilgrimages of Christians to Bethlehem and Jerusalem, but the Turks, though converted to Islam, were less tolerant. They engaged in continual wars with each other in Palestine, and pilgrims who chanced to come in the way of soldiers were robbed and murdered. The pitiful tales of such pilgrims as escaped aroused great anger in Europe among high and low, and Pope Urban II, in 1095, seized the opportunity to issue a stirring appeal to Christians to forget their own quarrels and unite in a Holy War against the unbelievers. The main objective was to recover possession of the Holy Land. All who participated were to have the figure of the cross embroidered upon their garments. Hence the name Crusade, a War of the Cross, from Latin *crux*, 'cross'.

The people who joined in this First Crusade fell into two classes; the first consisted of poor people of a blind faith, who followed fanatical leaders called Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless. They travelled along the

Danube Valley, protected by the sign of the cross as far as Constantinople, perhaps 10,000 in number. In Asia Minor they were cut to pieces by the Turks. The second body, consisting chiefly of French and Norman noblemen and their retinues, numbered 25,000. They fought their way through Asia Minor, entered Syria, and in 1099 gained possession of the Holy Land, which was retained in Christian hands for a century. It was a military occupation and native workmen were impressed to build strong fortresses of stone. The nobles ruled as they had ruled in France, and Palestine became an appendage of Europe. Pilgrimages were renewed, merchants fared back and forth by sea, and the commerce that had dwindled with the fall of the Roman Empire was once more renewed.



CRUSADER

The Second Crusade was undertaken in 1147 to repulse fresh encroachments of the Turks. It was a joint enterprise of the French king and the head of the Holy Roman Empire. The two armies followed the Danube route, but not together, because the French and Germans would have fought each other. They entered Asia Minor separately and were separately defeated. This was a discouraging failure.

In the meantime a genius made his appearance among

the enemy, Saladin by name. He was not a Turk, but a Kurd, and he was well educated. It was due not less to ability than good fortune that he made himself master of Mesopotamia and Egypt, bringing an end to the Caliphate of Cairo in 1171. Only Christian Palestine remained, and this fell to his arms in 1187. The port of Tyre alone was retained by the Christians.

With the Third Crusade the story of these Holy Wars enters distinctly into the field of romance. King Richard of England, surnamed the Lion-hearted, participated, and his allies were Frederic Barbarossa of the Holy Roman Empire and King Phillip Augustus of France. The German army, following the usual route by land, lost its leader by drowning in Asia Minor, and was almost annihilated. The other armies arrived by sea but Philip returned home because of some fancied injury, and Richard was left to bear the burden of the war alone. He fought valiantly and made as great a name for himself as if he had conquered, but Saladin was too able an antagonist. Richard came back to England to end a romantic career amid a sea of troubles at home.

In the meanwhile the pattern of life had been changing in Europe and Asia alike. Constantinople had been reduced by successive losses of territory almost to the position of a Greek city-state. It lived chiefly off the stream of commerce that poured through the Bosporus and connected at Black Sea ports with the northern caravan routes to Central Asia and China. Its great rival was Venice, which had risen to wealth and power through its skill in providing the countries of Europe with pepper, ginger, cinnamon, pearls, rubies, rugs, tapestries, and the fine fabrics of India, procured through Egypt. The Doge of Venice in 1202 conceived the plan of diverting a Fourth Crusade against his rival in Constantinople. By sharp dealing he accomplished this, and after some reverses captured the city. Inhuman massacres followed and the Greek Empire

became for a time (1204-1261) a Latin Empire. Venice also gained some islands and ports. Genoa had taken the other side and rather bested her competitor by securing Black Sea ports. These events, however, belong rather to the history of commerce. The true Crusades were finished. Other wars were called by this name until the sacred number of seven was reached, but they may be omitted here. The chief permanent results of the true Crusades belong in the chapter on commerce, where they will be mentioned (page 293).

It would have been strange if soldiers of Europe were led across a continent to fight Moslems in the Holy Land without any attack being made upon men of the same faith in Spain. The truth is that the Spaniards at home were engaging in Crusades at the same time and all the time. The stronghold of the Moors had always been in Granada near the Straits. The independence movement naturally began at a distance, in the West and the North. Here appeared the kingdoms of Portugal, Castile and Aragon. Toledo fell to the Castilians in 1085, Saragossa to the Aragonese in 1118, and Lisbon to the Portuguese in 1147. Step by step the adjacent lands were won back, and progress was all the more permanent because it was slow. In 1469 the kingdoms of Castile and Aragon were united by the marriage of that remarkable pair, Isabella and Ferdinand, and in the memorable year of 1492 the Moorish Moslems were expelled for ever from Europe.

CHAPTER XXVI

ASIATIC DESPOTISMS

Persistence of Empires in Asia—Law of the Growth of Empires—Empire of Genghis Khan no Exception—Equipment and Knowledge of the Mongols—The Genius of Genghis Khan—Grand Council of the Khans, 1206—The *Yassa* or Mongol Code of Laws.

CONQUEST OF CHINA.

CONQUEST OF CENTRAL ASIA.

MONGOL COURIERS.

MONGOL DISCIPLINE.—First Invasion of China—Foundation of the Desert Capital Karakorum—Wealth of Mohammedan Kingdoms—The Vast Army of Genghis Khan—Capture of Bokhara and Samarkand—Protection of Trade—Last Grand Council of the Khans—Superb Organization of the Mongol Hordes—Subsequent Conquests of the Mongols—Removal of the Capital to Peking.

EMPIRE OF TAMERLANE.—Character of Tamerlane—His Amazing Campaigns—His Empire of the Raiding Type.

SIGNIFICANCE OF MONGOL EMPIRES.—Chinese Character of Mongol Organization—Ottoman Empire of the Turks.

It has been shown in Chapter XIII how the Asiatic empires of Mesopotamia had their descendant and pupil in the Roman Empire of the West. This Roman Empire fell apart in the fifth century A.D. In Chapter XXIII it has been shown how the Empire of Islam, also born in Asia, swept westward across Africa in the seventh century as far as Spain, and penetrated eastward to the heart of Asia. In western Europe the idea of empire lingered on as a ghost but in Asia it continued to grow and to determine the course of history. Out of Central Asia the dominion of the Seljuk Turks had thrust itself into the realms of Islam, but in the meanwhile a movement of vastly greater proportions found its beginning in the far north-east of Asia on the margins of the ancient civilization of China.

This is a very important principle for the understanding of the growth of empires. Just as the new wood of a tree is always found in the outer rings, so the new empires

regularly have their origin on the outer margins of civilization. A second important principle is this, that conquerors, no matter how ignorant they may be at the outset, learn very rapidly and press with a sure instinct towards the lands of rich cities and intensive agriculture. So the Assyrians, the Medes and Persians, and the Chaldeans thrust themselves into the domain of Babylon. Alexander, in his turn, drove his way from the western margin of the Persian Empire to its very core, and then to its opposite margins in Central Asia and India and back again. In like manner the Roman Empire grew up on the margin of the ancient Greek World and adopted as the pattern of its provincial government the Persian system, though modified to meet its own needs.

Seemingly different from all of these was the gigantic empire of the Mongols in Asia, which was founded at the end of the twelfth century. The Mongols had, and still have, for their home-land the cold, bleak, wind-swept deserts of Asia north of the Great Wall of China. They are nomads, living in tents of felt and moving from place to place with their rough, shaggy ponies and lean oxen and sheep as the season furnishes pastures. Among them about the year 1162 there was born a man-child who conquered half the known world and is known in history as Genghis Khan, or Emperor of all Men. His people were so poor, illiterate and remote that one might hastily draw the conclusion that his achievements fall outside the laws of history. To believe this would be a great mistake.

The Mongols were illiterate, rough and cruel, but they were not so uncivilized as men might think. They were excellently armed; their favourite weapon was the light, double-curved bow re-enforced with plates of horn, from which they discharged arrows from horseback with great rapidly, either advancing or retreating. The arrows had long, sharp heads of tempered steel, which penetrated like a bullet. They used saddles and stirrups, bits and bridles.

They knew how to fight in formation by tens, hundreds, thousands, and tens of thousands. Like all nomads they were marvellous path-finders. They knew their way over thousands of miles of territory, and having once seen the lie of a district they rarely forgot it. Their memories for faces and events, as is often the case with men who do not read books, was prodigious. A friend or an enemy was never forgotten.

Their law was the law of the desert:—

> That they shall take who have the power,
> And those shall keep who can.

It was necessary for every family to place itself under the protection of some fighting khan or chieftain; otherwise their horses and cattle would be stolen. When a khan died his followers promptly deserted his heir unless he was already known to be a fighting man. This very thing happened to Temujin, for such was the real name of Genghis Khan, when the death of his father left him an orphan at the age of thirteen. If this seeming calamity had not occurred it is fairly certain that he would never have developed into a military genius. While yet a mere boy he was robbed and hunted and once left for dead in the snow. At the age of seventeen he had won back his followers, built up his herds of horses and cattle, and developed extraordinary cunning. It may be also that he nursed a secret resentment against mankind. Men had denied to him as a boy what belonged to him by rights; as a man he had come to believe that the world was his for the taking and he was resolved to take it.

Temujin built up his power in precisely the same way that a man builds up a big business, by starting with a small one. He first asserted his authority over his own tribesmen and then overawed his neighbours to the south-west, who were Turkish. His continuous wars brought him into the region of the caravan routes, and he had glimpses of rich merchants faring back and forth between China and

the West. He was a genius, and he learned a hundred times as quickly as other men. From one of his captives he learned and adopted the use of a royal seal, the impression of which upon a letter was the guarantee of its genuineness; the bearer's message was to be obeyed whether he demanded food, silver or troops. By the year 1206 he felt himself strong enough to summon to a Grand Council all the khans north of the Great Wall from the sea westward to the Tian Shan Mountains. He had so impressed them with his leadership that they elected him the Khan of Khans. The title was bestowed upon him of Genghis Khan, Emperor of all Men. It was his will that this name should be written in gold or not at all.



Culver Service

GENGHIS KHAN

THE YASSA OR MONGOL CODE OF LAWS

One of the first measures of Genghis Khan was to draw up a code of laws, which became to his followers what the Koran is to Mohammedans and the Bible was to the Puritans. It was called the *Yassa*. Its commandments applied chiefly to the army, which consisted entirely of horsemen. Every winter they were to assemble for the hunt, in which a long crescent of mounted men, extending over as much as a hundred miles of mountains and desert, slowly closed in on all the deer, antelopes, wolves, bears, tigers and other animals until the last day, when Genghis himself ceremoniously began the slaughter by laying low the fiercest beasts. This hunt kept the men in condition for the summer wars,

which followed the spring council. Loyalty was demanded of all. No man was to leave behind him a wounded comrade, to forsake a standard, or to pillage before the signal was given. Thieves, false witnesses, spies, sorcerers and adulterers were punished with death. All religions were tolerated, and his subjects embraced not only his own Mongols but also Buddhists, Mohammedans, and Nestorian Christians. From the latter Genghis Khan may have adopted the following injunction: "All men shall believe in one God, creator of heaven and earth, the sole giver of goods and poverty, of life and death, as pleases Him, whose power over all things is absolute."

Conquest of China

By the year 1212 Genghis Khan felt strong enough to invade China. Never before had he ventured out of the great deserts, but by this time he had struck terror into his neighbours, and believed himself safe. The Great Wall did not deter him. Suitable gifts to the proper parties opened the gates to him. China was slumbering, self-confident in its vast extent, its millions of inhabitants and its ancient civilization. The Chin, or Golden Emperors were ruling in the North, the Sung Emperors in the South. They were at feud with each other. The country was rich and poor, as it is, and always has been. Rich nobles fared forth in rich garments of silk with beautiful umbrellas held over their heads by the servants. Learned men pored over their ancient classics. Buddhist priests dozed in their monasteries. Poets drank wine and gazed in the reflection of the moon in the water.

The armies sent against the Mongols were soon scattered, but new ones were coming up the rivers to take their places. Then the Mongols disappeared as quickly as they had come, but laden with plunder. After this success the invasion of China became an annual affair, and always Genghis Khan was learning. It was in China that he ac-

quired the art of capturing walled cities. Yen King, a capital, not far from Peking, was captured after a few campaigns and then Genghis Khan went back to the desert never to return. He had lost interest in China, but to his desert tactics he had added the more complex arts of the Chinese. A Chinese prince, Ye Liu Chutsai, was henceforward always at his side. A trusted Mongol general named Muhuli was left behind to complete the conquest of China.

Conquest of Central Asia

If Genghis Khan had been an ordinary Tartar he might have settled down in the fair land of China and established a dynasty to bequeath to his sons, but he had other plans. His was no ordinary mind. He was a genius, and he knew that his great fighting machine would break up unless it was constantly employed. Just as it is hazardous for a prosperous business not to expand when it is ready to grow, so it is hazardous for an empire. He did not return to Mongolia. Instead he established a capital at Karakorum, the Black Sands (map page 295).

At the beginning of the thirteenth century the rule of Islam extended from Spain in the West all the way to India, but it was not a unit. Separate centres of Mohammedism flourished in Egypt, Syria, Mesopotamia and northern India. From Damascus to India the supreme war-lord was Mohammed Shah of Kharesm. He was of a Turkish blood and belonged to a line of fighters. His courtiers hailed him as a second Alexander the Great. He possessed Indian war elephants, vast trains of camels and multitudes of followers superbly armed. In his empire were magnificent cities famed in history. Chief among these were Bokhara, renowned for its mosques, academies and wise men, and Samarkand, famous for its parks, orchards and lofty walls. Through these passed the historic caravan routes between Europe and China. The land had long been prosperous

but prosperity was to prove its undoing. Its wealth had tempted the ambition of the great Mongol lord of the north and its pride and insolence had given him excuse. Certain Mongol envoys had been put to death by the despot of Kharesm.

The great march to the south and west was set for the spring of 1219. In the whole history of mankind it is doubtful if ever such an army assembled. Two thousand miles of bleak, wind-swept deserts and barren mountains were to be traversed. Every man had four or five horses and the men numbered 250,000. Great herds of cattle were driven forward to feed them. Every man carried his own arms and baggage: two bows and two quivers of arrows, sabres and axes, ropes, nose-bags for the ponies and small cooking pots for the men themselves. There was a train of ox-carts to carry the grain, tents, siege material and tools. The master of artillery was a Chinese engineer and his trained helpers numbered 10,000. They knew how to build catapults for hurling stones and fire-balls. All the arts of war as practised in China were at the service of the dauntless Mongols. The orders to all commanders of divisions were to the effect that no walled city was to be left untaken.

Long before the Mongols had emerged from the mountain passes upon the plains of the warm southland the herds of cattle had been consumed and many of the horses had perished, but the great army was intact. Mohammed Shah was in the field with 400,000 men to repulse it, but he was outgeneraled at every point. The Mongol forces were divided into several divisions, all commanded by veteran generals. They appeared where they were least expected and drove in from the east when they were awaited from the west. City after city fell before them. Mohammed Shah fled madly across the desert and perished unknown and miserably on an island in the Caspian Sea. At Bokhara the old Mongol chieftain told the Mohammedans

that it was a mistake to make the pilgrimmage to Mecca, "For the power of Heaven is not in one place alone, but in every corner of the earth." In Bokhara he stayed only two hours. Samarkand was taken without a siege. Thirty thousand Turkish soldiers who gave themselves up were put to death; Genghis Khan never trusted men who surrendered without fighting.

Mongol Couriers

It would be a great mistake to infer that in these conquests Genghis Khan was a mad barbarian favoured by fortune. It is doubtful if Hannibal or Caesar maintained a better intelligence service. He was 2000 miles from home and his forces were spread over hundreds of miles of territory. Nevertheless, he was constantly in touch with all his troops by means of swift couriers. He was ruthlessly cruel but not recklessly. He slew those whom he believed to be traitors either to others or to himself. He was interested in trade. He took great pains to maintain the stations where horses were kept ready for his messengers. These stations were 10,000 in number and required 300,000 horses. Riders wore belts covered with bells so that their identity was known to all who heard them. At times they travelled 200 miles between dawn and dark. Their heads, chests and stomachs were tightly bandaged in order to increase their endurance. Along the same roads passed in safety the long trains of camels carrying the cloth, glass and metal work of Syria to far distant India, China and Mongolia. Few robbers dared attack a traveller in the Khan's dominion.

Genghis Khan did not conquer India but he did cross through the Khyber Pass into the Punjab. His warriors, like those of Alexander the Great, were discouraged from further advances by the intense heat. The army returned to Samarkand. In the far west two generals reached Bagdad, turned north to the Caucasus, circled the Black Sea and



THE MONGOL EMPIRE, 1300 A.D.

entered the plains of southern Russia. At the same time a son of the Khan was busy east of the Caspian. All of them were recalled to the annual spring conference of the chieftains not far from Samarkand in 1222. In that beautiful city assembled a motley array from the east, west, north and south. For magnificence nothing like it had ever been known. The old chief was seated upon the golden throne of Mohammed Shah, but underneath was placed a square of gray felt, a symbol of former days in the Gobi Desert. This may be compared to the stone from Scotland that is under the throne of the King of England. This was the last gathering of the Khans under their old chief. After a month of consultation and feasting they all dispersed to their several posts in the new empire. The old chief himself set out on a last campaign to complete the subjection of Tibet and southern China. During this campaign he died (1227) probably of old wounds, and was carried back to a secret burial place in the desert where he was born.

Mongol Discipline

It is customary for historians of Europe to write of Genghis Khan with the same detestation that Roman authors display towards the barbarians of Europe. They are prone to forget that Christian Crusaders repeatedly made massacre of Moslem prisoners. It is also customary to speak of Mongol armies as "hordes", as if they had no order or discipline. The truth is that they were as perfectly disciplined as Roman legions, and each rider kept his eye on the standard of his troop precisely as the Roman soldier watched the movement of the silver eagle. The Mongol standards were yak-tails carried on spear shafts. Each ten, each hundred, each thousand, and each ten thousand had its standard. Thus in spite of the appearance of wild disorder there was perfect order. There was also a perfectly understood system of signalling in battle. If a feigned retreat was ordered by the standard-bearer of the

ten thousand, the other standard-bearers signalled it on from troop to troop until every man was galloping away. It was the utter unfamiliarity of the disorderly order of these flying squadrons of mounted archers that dismayed the steadfast armies of the West.

Genghis Khan left to his sons an empire almost as well organized as that which Augustus Caesar turned over to his successors in Rome. It was in one sense much stronger, because it was not standing on the defensive but still eager and ready for expansion. In the generation after the death of the Great Khan his armies overcame the Sung Empire in southern China and even took in Burma and the Malay Peninsula. In the West the orderly hordes reached Aleppo, Damascus and Antioch. They were striking for Egypt when turned back by the Mamelukes near Acre in 1260. Even before this date another army corps, long known as the Golden Horde, was busy in European Russia. They overwhelmed the opposition of the Hungarian nobles (Magyars), the Bulgarians, the Poles and the Germans. Most of these conquests were not permanent, but Russia was held for two centuries. Moscow was the Mongol capital, and every year the rude nobles of those days were required to present themselves at court and do humiliating homage to the Mongol governor. During these two centuries Russia was part of Asia (1241-1480).

The genius of Genghis Khan did not reappear in his sons, although they were able men, but he had a brilliant grandson named Kublai Khan. He moved the capital to Cambaluc in northern China near Peking, and it was this capital that became famous in story. There his dynasty continued to rule over all China from his death in 1294 until overthrown by a revolution in 1368. The Ming Dynasty that succeeded was Chinese. In the east the Mongols became Buddhists, in Persia and the south they became Moslems. Such as survived in Russia adhered to the Orthodox Church.

It was almost inevitable that a conqueror like Genghis Khan should have imitators. The greatest of these made his appearance a century later in the person of Timur or Tamerlane. Like the first Khan of Khans, he began his career as a petty chieftain. Among western races his name is abhorred, but the story of his life reveals some redeeming features. By daring and courage he made his way to local leadership. He had a wife to whom he was passionately devoted, and he was inconsolable at her death. So often was he betrayed in his youth by friends and relatives that he came to have no respect for any qualities except reckless daring and unswerving loyalty. For the common run of mankind who display no particular virtue he had utter contempt, and he ordered whole populations to be put to the sword. The skilled workmen he singled out, spared, and transported to Samarkand to build beautiful buildings. He made of it one of the wonder cities of the medieval world.

As for his wars, it mattered little that he pushed his conquests westward into Persia, Mesopotamia, Armenia, and even to Syria. It was the destiny of these unfortunate regions to be conquered again and again. In his biographies it thrills the reader to be told of his men scaling the steep walls of mountain fortresses which no mortal believed could be captured, but this belongs to the romance of history. It is equally thrilling to read of his horde riding straight into the heart of Asia Minor, the Sultan's domain, and slashing to pieces the finest flower of the Turkish army, which seemed invincible to the Christian soldiery of Europe. The story runs that the dancing girls of the Sultan's court were compelled to do their steps and sing Turkish songs of victory before the twinkling eyes of the despot of Samarkand, while the proud Sultan himself, a prisoner by this time, looked dolefully on. This conquest, however, was not permanent. The Turk is still ruling Asia Minor to-day.

It was a real incident of World History, however, when

Bagdad was robbed of all except the memory of its former glory, and the Caliphate came to an end in those parts. Its new capital was at Cairo among the Mamelukes. Tamerlane's invasion of India was only a terrible incident; he won a great victory at Delhi in 1398. The true Mongol Empire did not begin in India until 1526, though it lasted after a fashion until the Indian Mutiny of 1857. Tamerlane is hardly to be compared with Genghis Khan. His empire was more of the raiding type, and his power was acknowledged as far as he could strike. He operated in southern Asia, the home of despotism, where the deserts lent themselves to his swift methods. Such empires break up very quickly after the death of the founder.

Significance of Mongol Empires

A hasty judgment might lead one to conclude that the Mongol Empires in Asia belong in the long series of despotisms that had its origin in Mesopotamia, but this is an error. Genghis Khan did not need to learn from the Arabs and Turks of the organization of a vast dominion into provinces ruled by governors and garrisoned by detachments of his own soldiers. He had already learned of this from his experience in China. China itself was a vast empire, embracing many races and divided into provinces ruled by governors. Therefore the pattern of the Mongol government was distinctly Chinese, and not Persian. It has been mentioned that a Chinese statesman was always at the side of the first Khan of Khans. His master of artillery was a Chinese, and he never could have captured walled cities if the art of war as he had learned it along the Hoang-ho had not been at his service. What was unique in his career was this, that he carried the Chinese system of administration to its farthest point in the West. The two extremes of the broad Eurasian Continent never came into such close touch by land as during the vigorous and enlightened rule of these Mongol despots. Their regime marks the very peak

of the effort of the East and West to make permanent contacts by land. This effort is an outstanding feature of the Middle Ages.

The true successors of the Mongol conquerors of Asia were the Ottoman Turks, whose dominion at its greatest extent, under Suleiman the Magnificent (1520-1566), was half European and half Asiatic (page 417). It was more than a raiding empire. What they won they held, occupied and ruled. They were strong, if not inventive, administrators. To civilization they contributed nothing new. Under Asiatic despotism there was no development of government; only decline and fall. The best that can be said for Turkish rule is this, that it endured for a long time.

CHAPTER XXVII

MEDIEVAL COMMERCE

Expansion of Trade under the Mongol Empire—Development of the Medieval Economic Pattern.

Domestic Trade.—The Country House the Basic Unit—Articles of Trade, Armour, Wine, Olive-Oil, Cloth, Salt and Black Pepper.

Foreign Trade.—Venice, Its Trade and Industry—New Trade Routes by Land in Europe—Towns of the Hanseatic League—Medieval Town-Planning,

The Guilds.—Apprentices and Journeymen—Craft-Guilds and Merchant-Guilds.

Italian City-States.—Italian Cities and their Eastern Ports.

Effects of the Crusades.—Large Orders for War Supplies—Increase of Shipping, Building and Luxury.

Trade Routes.

The Silk Route.—Travels of a Bale of Silk—Travels of a Sack of Black Pepper—Scope of the Arab Trade by Eastern Seas—Vicissitudes of Oriental Trade—Northern and Southern Routes in Asia—Two Routes between India and Europe—Magnificence of Asiatic Cities—Articles of the Caravan Trade.

Effect of Hinduism.—Indian Merchants of the Early Middle Ages—Isolation of India through Hinduism.

This is the place to tell of medieval commerce, because it reached its greatest dimensions in the age of the Mongol despots of Asia. It spanned the broadest land-mass in the world along its very diameter. Across thousands of miles of desert along various routes, the slow-moving camels went nodding back and forth, their flanks bulging with bales, safe from the forays of robber bands under the omnipresent protection of the Mongol garrisons. The Mediterranean and the Black Sea became dotted once more with such a multitude of ships as they had not seen since the days of the Roman Peace, the *Pax Romana.* In Europe the old cities, whose trade had dwindled during the long strife of rival barons and kings, awoke to new life, and other cities, whose names had been obscure or unknown in ancient days, climbed rapidly to wealth and prosperity. A new pattern of economic life, which had been gradually unfolding itself, burst into full blossom, and continued to flourish until the

discovery of new continents and new seas compelled the trade of the world to develop yet other patterns on a grander scale.

Domestic trade was naturally the first to recover from the effects of disorder. Next in point of time came the resumption of traffic between northern Europe and the more favoured countries of the Mediterranean. Around the depots of this north and south trade there grew up the new medieval towns, which evolved a quite different grouping of the houses than the old Roman checker-board cities. With the new towns a new organization of labour and merchandising made its appearance, which is called the guild system. The first Asiatic trade was carried on by caravans across Russia from the Baltic Sea to the region of the Caspian, but this northern route was completely superseded later by the southern caravan routes across Asia, which had their depots on the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. The range of commerce was greatly enhanced by the Crusades in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, and it was in the thirteenth, when the Mongols were ruling in Asia, that it reached its peak. Sea-borne trade with China by way of the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea, always in Arab hands, enjoyed a parallel increase and prosperity.

Domestic Trade

It has already been told how the Roman pattern of life and law dissolved during the epoch marked by the migrations of the vigorous races of Central Europe and the inroads of the Huns from Asia. The basis of Roman commerce had been the vast web-work of hard roads and the hundreds of checker-board towns that dotted the peaceful provinces. The roads and bridges, of course, fell into disrepair, and the towns with their schoolmasters, their potters and their glass-blowers were wiped out. Only the Roman country houses, the spacious villas, survived to become the residence of the new proprietors. Around these villas the

new economic system was built up with its villages, its blacksmiths, wheelwrights, brewers, millers, bakers and butchers. They produced or manufactured all that the estate required and the women did the spinning and weaving. Each village had its church building, and on Saints' Days the people assembled for mass, and after the service attended a fair, during which the people bartered with one another for what they required. Of exports and imports there were few.

In the course of time, however, it became apparent that trade must return. The lord was engaged in frequent wars and the local blacksmith could not make such good swords or armour as the more skilled competitors in northern Italy or Spain. This meant traffic in arms. Noblemen also developed a taste for wine, and this must be imported from the warm south. The abbeys also played a part in trade. Many of the monks and parish priests had come from the south and they might require olive-oil as well as wine. They might desire better cassocks or cloaks of a certain cut, which were made elsewhere. This was also an impetus to trade. It gradually became apparent also that certain districts, such as England and Flanders, produced a wool greatly superior to others; this quality soon made a market for itself elsewhere, and the woollen industries began to thrive. It was also discovered that the Moors in Spain greatly excelled other races in tanning and dyeing leather. For their smooth, pliable and durable coloured leathers a keen demand soon arose, because the new nobles of Europe were vain enough to desire a handsome doublet or a superb pair of riding boots.

There were even more universal needs to supply than the call for leather, armour, oil and wine. Man cannot live without salt, and salt is not found everywhere. Vast quantities were required for curing hams and bacon in the autumn season, when forest food failed for the hogs and the surplus animals were slaughtered. Pork and beef were

also pickled. Great quantities of fish were also preserved in brine for use far from the sea. In all this there is nothing to astonish us, but extent of the trade in black pepper seems unbelievable. When Alaric the Goth in 408 consented to give up the siege of Rome he demanded 3,000 pounds of it as part of the ransom. Our ancestors preferred their food highly seasoned. Much meat was cured in the form of sausages, long, dry and hard; unground black pepper showed thickly through the casing.

Foreign Trade

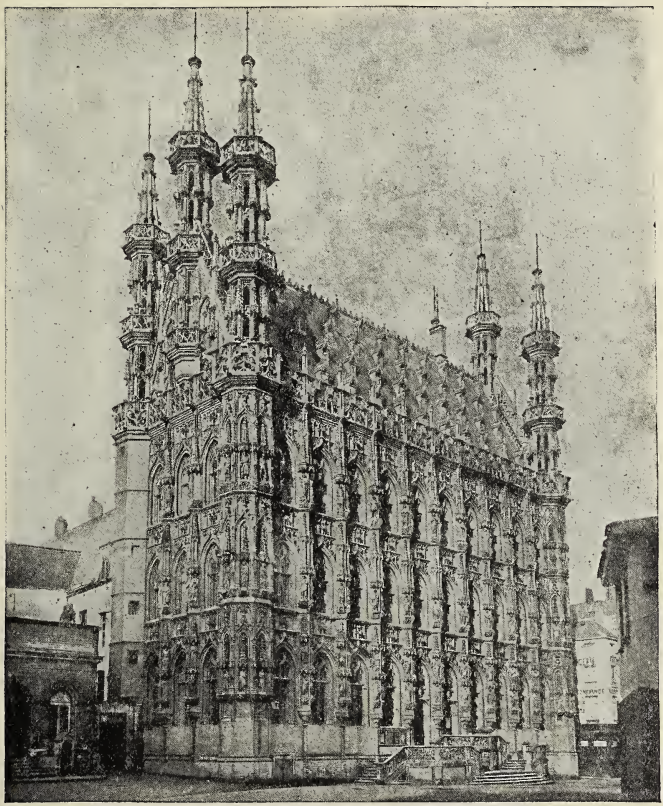
It was in foreign trade, however, that fortunes were most quickly made. This may be compared to the China trade that began in America after the American Revolution. If a small American ship laden with tea could net its owners as much as $50,000 on a single voyage, need it be asked what profits might accrue to a merchant of Venice on a cargo of silks and spices from Alexandria? The Venetians were foremost in medieval trade. Their city was new, built on low islands where desperate families took refuge during the Lombard invasions of Italy in the sixth century. The site was a good one for fishermen, and fishermen easily become traders. For a century or two the settlement pursued an obscure existence, and then the hardy captains began to venture to Arab ports of the Levant. Homewards they fared with their black pepper, cinnamon, mace, cloves and incense. It was doubtlessly in the Levant that they learned the art of working and dyeing glass. At any rate the industry reached a degree of high perfection in Venice, and survives to this day.

The traffic by land in Europe was bound to keep pace with the traffic by sea. New routes were opened up and soon the long trains of mules laden with spices and incense were wending their way to Milan, over the Alps to Basle, Paris and Bologne, and down the Rhine to Strassburg, Mayence, and Cologne. Near the North Sea a cluster of busy


ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BALTIC SEA
KINGDOM OF NORWAY
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
GOTHLAND
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND
Edinburgh
IRELAND
Dublin
KM. OF WALES
Chester
ENGLAND
Oxford
London
Canterbury
FLANDERS
Calais
Bremen
Hamburg
Utrecht
Cologne
Elbe R.
Rhine R.
HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE
DUCHY OF POMERANIA
Posen
KINGDOM OF POLAND
Prague
Mainz
Nuremberg
Ratisbon
Danube R.
Vienna
NORMANDY
Paris
MAINE
Loire R.
Seine R.
Blois
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
Clermont
Lyons
Rhone R.
TOULOUSE
Toulouse
KINGDOM OF BURGUNDY
Avignon
Milan
Venice
Genoa
Ravenna
KINGDOM OF CROATIA
DALMATIA
KINGDOM OF LEON
Leon
Porto
COUNTY OF PORTUGAL
KINGDOM OF CASTILE
Burgos
Ebro R.
Duero R.
Tagus R.
Lisbon
Toledo
Guadiana R.
Ucles
Valencia
Cordova
Guadalquivir R.
Seville
Granada
Gibraltar
Ceuta
MOSLEM PRINCIPALITIES OF THE WEST
COUNTY OF PROVENCE
Marseilles
COUNTY OF CATALONIA
Barcelona
BALEARIC IS.
CORSICA (To Pisa)
SARDINIA (To Pisa)
Pisa
Ancona
STATES OF THE CHURCH
Rome
Naples
Benevento
Tyrrhenian Sea
NORMAN PRINCIPALITIES
Palermo
Messina
Ionian Sea
SICILY
Syracuse
MALTA
Tripoli
MOROCCO
Fez
Oran
Scale of Miles
0 100 200 400 600 800
5° Longitude West 0° 5° Longitude 10° East from 15° Greenwich
25° 20° 15° 10° 5° 0° 5° 10° 15°
55° 50° 45° 40° 35° 30° 25°



LY MIDDLE AGES



THE TOWN HALL AT LOUVAIN (BELGIUM)

Built at the close of the Middle Ages, in the fifteenth century, this is proof of the prosperity and artistic taste, as well as of the civic pride of medieval townspeople.

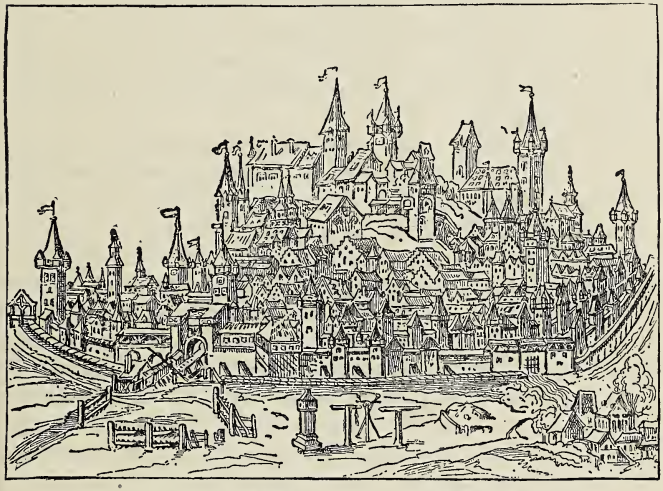
towns grew up in Flanders, where the best wool grew and the misty atmosphere was favourable to weavers and dyers; in the bright climate of Italy many colours set too quickly

and as quickly fade. Chief among these Flemish towns were Ypres, Ghent, Antwerp and Bruges, but the latter was the chief depot of the Italian merchants. The Germans, who a few short centuries before had preferred the skins of animals to the garments of civilized men, were by this time becoming the foremost merchants and mariners.

The traffic on the Rhine gave importance to the old Roman colony of Cologne, and Cologne was allied with growing towns on the North Sea and the Baltic, Bremen, Hamburg, Lübeck, Danzig and Königsberg. Others, such as Brunswick and Magdeburg, handled the traffic by land. These towns were for the most part free cities, which managed their own affairs and even dared to defy the kings and barons if need arose. They elected mayors or burgomasters, who with the advice of the aldermen looked to the security of their lives and privileges and the profits of trade. They kept fleets at sea to repulse pirates, and often mercenary soldiers to defend them by land. The towns were banded into a union known as the Hanseatic League, or simply the Hanse. Their ships controlled the trade of the Baltic, the North Sea and the Channel, and maintained regular connections with Spain and Italy. The long voyage through the Atlantic was cheaper than the land route over the Alps, where many a landlord stopped the train of mules, appraised their merchandise and took his toll.

These new cities developed a town-plan quite different from that of the Roman checker-board towns which they displaced. Instead of wide streets running at right angles they had narrow and crooked alleys which could readily be barricaded and defended. Instead of a forum with a columnated temple of Jupiter they had a market-place with a cathedral on one side and the town-hall hard by. The other sides of the square would be occupied by guild-halls and the residences of prosperous burghers. Instead of the straight lines of Roman architecture, which

was geometric in style, the buildings rose high into the air with towers and turrets, spires, narrow windows, and pointed, not rounded, arches. This new style was called Gothic, a word which in this use means simply barbaric. A special feature of these new towns was the bell-tower, which summoned the people at the alarm of fire or invasion, or to worship. The church towers were to the Christians



NUREMBURG, A GERMAN CITY IN THE MIDDLE AGE

what the minarets were to Islam, those slender, round towers with a small balcony above from which the Moslem is warned of the hours of the five daily prayers.

THE GUILDS

Along with the new towns grew up a particular code of morality and loyalty. There was no serfdom as on the land. A boy would be taken by his father to the master of a trade which he wished him to learn and bound by a written document (*indenture*) to serve him for seven years. He

was then called an apprentice. The apprentice was required to obey his master and to fight for him if necessary. When he had learned the trade he was called a journeyman, and might go working at his calling from city to city, but always he was required to be loyal to the fellow-members of his craft wherever he might he. If he became a master-workman and opened a shop, he was required to be loyal to their union, called the guild. He was pledged to buy his wool or his iron in the open market at a fair price, to pay a stated wage to his workmen, and to sell as he had bought. Secret buying or selling was treason, and was punished by fines or expulsion.

There were as many as a hundred guilds in medieval London and eighty in Cologne. Most important were the merchant-guilds, which engaged in wholesale trade, both export and import, but more numerous were the craft-guilds, which handled the local trade. Between merchant-guilds and craft-guilds a strict social line was drawn, and the wife of a member of a craft-guild dared not so much as address the wife of a member of a merchant-guild. The memory of these crafts is preserved to-day in a multitude of names. In the early Middle Ages a man had only one name, Martin, for example. If he opened a shop and dealt in fish-hooks, lines and nets, he would put a sign over his door, Martin Fisher, and so in the course of time he acquired two names by sheer repetition. Similar are Smith, Cooper, Taylor, Chandler, Potter, Spicer, and a score of others. Spices played such a leading role in the business of those days that "spicer" meant "grocer". There were separate guilds of "pepperers".

Italian City-states

In the Mediterranean area there was no monopoly of commerce for the enterprising city of Venice. The Genoese were as much at home on the sea as the Venetians, and their ships fared as far abroad. Pisa also became renowned, and city-states such as Siena, Florence, Bologna, Verona and

Milan flourished in inland parts. The armour and linked mail of the Milanese artisans were so superior to most others that many princes demanded them regardless of price. The Genoese at the same time were famous for their cross-bows, and furnished many a body of hired soldiers to the kings and princes of Europe. The land trade of Genoa followed the old Roman shore road to Marseilles and up the Rhone valley to Paris. In the East their special haunt was the Black Sea, where they tapped the western ends of the northern caravan routes from China. From this area they contrived to shut out the Venetians, whose best ports were on the coasts of Syria and Palestine, namely, Antioch, Beyrout, Tyre, Acre, and Jaffa; nor is Alexandria to be forgotten, the greatest of them all.

Effects of the Crusades

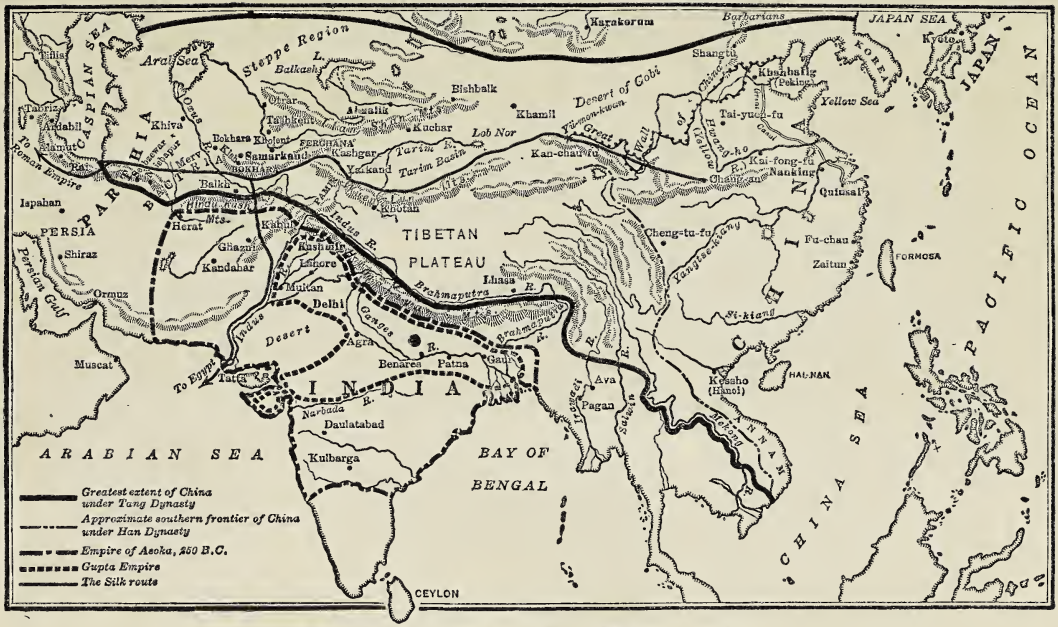
It was the Crusades that first brought big business to the towns and cities. The Crusaders placed such large orders for food, clothing, spears, swords, bows, and armour that every forge began to roar and every anvil to ring, while weavers and tailors worked from dawn till dark with loom and needle. It must be remembered, too, that every soldier who marched from Paris to Constantinople wore out pair after pair of shoes, and every knight who rode that distance would see to it that he had the best saddle and harness that money could purchase. War always makes men spenders, and the merchant reaps the profits. The Crusaders also benefited the cities because large numbers of quarrelsome nobles from France, Germany and England took their departure to the East, where they were absent for years at a time, and from which many never returned. This brought an access of power to both cities and the kings. Wars almost always have serious consequences such as these, quite unforeseen by those who begin them.

The later Crusades which went by sea did no less for the shipyards, and for every man who worked in a shipyard

a dozen were working elsewhere, in the forests felling the trees, in the mines extracting the iron, and on the roads hauling the materials to the harbours. Even distant Norway and Sweden were drawn into this trade, bringing from their pine forests the pitch and tar without which wooden ships cannot be made sea-worthy. It was the Venetians who profited chiefly by this business of transportation, but even the small town of Amalfi south of Naples bore an important part. The returning Crusaders, and many did return, brought back with them the taste for articles they had once scorned, the fine cloths, rugs and carpets of the East. This was also the age when wood gave way to stone in Europe as a building material, and castles began to rise along the Thames, the Rhine, the Loire and the Seine. Stone castles, however, are cold habitations, and the walls were hung with rich tapestries to keep out the drafts. This created a demand for expensive hangings, which was supplied by the looms of far-off Persia as well as by those of busy towns in Flanders. The town of Arras gave its name to a kind of tapestry (arras).

Trade Routes

The peak of the prosperity of the medieval cities corresponds with the epoch of the Mongol Empire of Asia, when one and the same dynasty ruled from Moscow in Russia to Peking near the Yellow Sea. These were the days when 300,000 horses were kept in readiness to convey the swift couriers of the Khan of Khans with their jingling bells. In these same centuries, the thirteenth and fourteenth, the caravansaries along the great overland trails of Asia were safe as they had never been before and never would be again, for the discipline of the fearless Mongol garrisons was at its best. A bale of silk packed in Peking would make its way by camel train across the bleak, windswept sands of the Gobi Desert into the mountains of Turkestan, to Kashgar usually, or Yarkand; the Chinese



ASIA IN ANCIENT AND EARLY MEDIEVAL TIMES

traders came no farther. From Kashgar or Yarkand it would pass to other hands and slowly make its way across more deserts to the Caspian; from there along its northern shore to Tana or Kaffa on the Black Sea, where Genoese merchants took it over. At Constantinople it paid its toll, for the emperor lived off trade, and finally reached Genoa. It might at last reach London in the form of cloth and adorn the person of an English prince, a rich merchant or a guild-master, or their respective wives.

A sack of black pepper would begin its journey from the west coast of India, where it grew. An Arab merchant ship conveyed it to a port on the Red Sea. Camels carried it to the Nile, where boats conveyed it to Alexandria. From there Venetian ships brought it to Italy, and trains of pack-mules distributed it to every town and village in Europe, for the demand was universal.

The sea-trade of the Indian Ocean had been in Arab hands since the days of the Greeks. Its farthest limit was Japan, and Chinese ports were visited regularly. The Spice Islands, where the cloves came from, almost as necessary as pepper, and Java, Sumatra and Ceylon, were all familiar to the Arab captains. They knew Madagascar and the east coast of Africa, where the fleets of Egyptian sovereigns, and even of Hiram of Tyre and Solomon of Jerusalem, had once sought "apes and ivory". This sea-trade of the Far East reached Europe through three channels, from the Red Sea either to Egypt or the ports of Palestine, and from the Persian Gulf to Bozra, where it connected with the Persian caravan routes leading to Damascus and adjacent ports. This Arab monopoly of the eastern seas lasted until the first voyage of the Portuguese navigator Vasco da Gama in 1498. The profits of the Arab monopoly may be realized when it is told that the profits of da Gama's voyage were sixty times the cost of the venture. Is it astonishing that the people of Europe became eager to discover a sea-route to the East?

The Silk Route

When the silk trade was at its height there were northern and southern routes to China. One led from Moscow to Cambaluc. Others began at Black Sea ports and led to the Caspian and beyond. Smyrna and Ephesus in Asia Minor were caravan ports, whose eastern depot was at Tabriz. Routes from ports of the eastern Mediterranean, called by Venetians the Levant, met at Damascus and went eastward across Persia to India and China. All the southern routes merged before they arrived at Yarkand or Kashgar, where wares were exchanged. No caravans made the whole trip in either direction.

The overland trail between Europe and China is often called the "silk route", but no lasting commerce can be maintained in a single commodity. It is rather astonishing that iron was also sent as far as Rome, possibly a variety suitable for casting like bronze. Caravans bound eastward carried glass-ware from Syria, amber and coral; the red coral of the Mediterranean was especially esteemed by the Chinese. It was one of their seven "preciosities". Ivory and tortoise shells were always in demand, because the art of carving was highly developed in China. Jade of various colours was added to the packs while traversing Central Asia. There was also a brisk market for rhinoceros horns, which were pulverized and used as a medicine.

Effect of Hinduism

In connection with Chinese foreign trade of the early Middle Ages it would be a grievous error to overlook the fact that merchants of India as well as Arabs were engaged in it. Both came by sea and their port was Canton, where colonies of both races were established as early as 300 A.D. This traffic handled the products of the southern Chinese provinces, while the raw silk of the north seems to have been exported chiefly by way of the caravan routes. At a later date, probably by the ninth century, or even earlier,

the Arabs secured a monopoly because the Brahmans decreed that foreign travel should involve loss of caste for a Hindu.

Thus religion, which interferes with all things in India, put an end to foreign trade in Indian ships. The lack of merchant ships meant the lack of war-ships in later days. India was placed at the mercy of every truculent trader who approached its shores. It was placed at the mercy of every autocratic prince whose capital was situated inland. The country became self-centred, and the penalty of this was to become ever more self-centred and defenceless against forces that approached by sea. If Buddhism had not been checked, all this would have been different, because Buddhism was a missionary religion. Hinduism, however, revived, and steadily fastened its fetters on the people. They became slaves of the Brahmans. In World History there are only a few facts equally important with this. It was the surrender of the control of its own sea trade that threw the country into the hands of Europeans, who lived by trade and controlled the sea.

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE MIDDLE AGES IN INDIA

Outline of History, 647-1526—Rajput and Pathan Periods—Origin of the Rajputs—King Amogharvarsa of the Deccan—Hinduism restricts Foreign Travel.

Moslem Raids.—The Amirs of Ghazni—The Sultan Mahmud of Ghazni—The Strengthening of Hinduism.

Mohammedan Conqest.—Mohammed of Ghor—The First Sultan of Delhi, 1206.

Invasion by Genghis Khan, 1221.—The Mongol Invasion only a raid—A New Turkish Dynasty, 1290.

A Mad Sultan.—Mohammed Adil, Son of Tughlak—Removal of the Capital to the Deccan—Reign of Firoz, Builder and Persecutor.

Invasion of Tamerlane, 1398.—Capture of the Capital Firozabad—Rise of the Afghan or Pathan Dynasty—Rise of the Urdu Language (Hindustani)—Advantages of Moslems over Hindus.

The period of Ancient History in India terminates with the death of the great king Harsha, 647 A.D. The Middle Ages extend from 647 to 1526, when the Mogul Empire was founded. The limit of Arab conquests in the eighth century (712) was the province of Sind, at the mouth of the Indus. This invasion came through Baluchistan and did not affect India at large. The true Moslem conquest of India was not the work of Arabs, but of Turks, who came from Afghanistan, beginning with the end of the twelfth century. The Mongol conquerors Genghis Khan and Tamerlane both invaded India, but only to raid and rob, not to remain. The true Mongol or Mogul Empire only began in 1526, after European traders were regularly coming to India by sea.

The 879 years between Harsha's death and the foundation of the Mogul Empire may be divided into two parts: first, the Rajput period, 647-1193, when native Hindu kings or naturalized Hindu kings ruled; and second, the Pathan Empire, 1193-1526, when Turkish or Afghan princes ruled. Pathan is another word for Afghan, but the Afghans themselves are a mixed race.

The Rajput period is not illustrious, but it is remarkable because there was immunity from serious invasion during its duration, 647-1193. Rajputana is the central district south of the Punjab, through which invaders regularly entered. The Huns and Scythians who settled there in the fifth and sixth centuries, when the mass movements of Asiatic races were at their height, came without women. They took Hindu wives, and the children were brought up by the mothers. They were taught to eat the foods that the Hindus eat, to reverence sacred cows, and to revere the holy men or Brahmans. In a generation or two they could hardly be distinguished from native Hindus. The fighting blood, however, was in them, and the leaders were enrolled in the warrior caste (kshatriyas). They made themselves kings of many of the northern districts. The country is so large that it could accommodate many princes and furnish them both luxury and splendid hunting. Elsewhere, in Bengal, for example, and the south, native princes continued to rule.

The names of the princes of these days do not belong to World History, but Amoghavarsa of the Deccan may be mentioned. Mohammedan writers ranked him in importance with the Emperor of Constantinople, the Caliph of Bagdad, and the Emperor of China. It is noteworthy that he lived in the same age as Charlemagne of France, when Europe was still in the making. He drew great wealth from the profits of commerce. He maintained friendly relationship with the Mohammedans of Sind, who were no doubt engaged in the carrying trade with Egypt and Europe. It was in this region of India that the Portuguese later founded such profitable trading posts. The chief product was black pepper, which was in demand even among barbarians in Europe.

During this age the gentle gospel of Buddhism was on the wane in the Deccan, where it had never been strong. The field was a fertile one for religion, but it was the Hindu sects that gained ground. Small communities of Christians

and Jews existed in the extreme south, and still exist, but the greatest gains were made by the followers of the Hindu gods Siva and Vishnu. The hold of the Brahmans upon all classes of natives was markedly tightened. It was enacted that any man who went abroad lost caste. This put an end to the travels of Indian merchants, who in the early era of Christianity were numerous in cities like Alexandria and Canton. The effect was to put the foreign trade of India in the hands of the Arabs, and to make of India a hermit of Kandahar. The rulers of Ghazni bore the title of Amir, country, as has been mentioned in the previous chapter.

Moslem Raids

In northern India the raids of the Moslems or Musulmen began once more towards the end of the tenth century. About this time a vigorous principality was founded in what is now Afghanistan with its capital at Ghazni, situated between the later city of Kabul and the more ancient city and were actuated by the crusading spirit of the first Mohammedans. It was their custom every year in the month of October to make a great muster of horsemen and descend upon the luxurious cities of Indian princes. These meat-eating men of the mountains were invariably more than a match for the vegetarian armies of India, in spite of their trained elephants. In 997 the greatest of the Amirs of Ghazni, Mahmud, began to rule and was afterwards elevated to the rank of Sultan.

This Sultan Mahmud, son of a Turkish slave, was a prince of raiders; it is said that he made no fewer than seventeen expeditions into India and all of them successful; that is to say, he captured on each occasion the city and palace of some native prince and returned to Ghazni laden with gold and silver, costly fabrics and precious jewels. These expeditions were all classed as Holy Wars, to which the fanatical Mohammedan felt a special call in image-loving India. The followers of the prophet, of course, abhorred all

images, and wrought as much havoc in shrines and temples as in palaces. It was their special pleasure to crush sacred objects and throw them into the road to be trodden under foot. Mahmud died in 1030 and about a century later his capital was destroyed. The only permanent result of all his campaigning was this, that the Punjab became a Moslem province, which Sind was already.

With the exception of these raids, which never extended beyond the range of a season's campaign, India had respite from foreign invasion for the space of five or six centuries, from the seventh till the end of the eleventh century. This did not mean that any political evolution took place such as was going on among the states of western Europe during the same epoch. Religious changes went on, but these were rather for the worse than the better. Buddhism, which was an idealistic faith and animated by a missionary spirit, steadily lost favour, and native cults grew stronger. The Jains prospered, who so abhor the taking of life that they carry a brush in their belts to sweep a seat clean for fear they may injure an insect when they sit down. Princes flourished, built beautiful palaces, patronized scholars and poets, and passed on, confident in the hope of being born again as princes when their spirits received a new body. When they died, three or four hundred women of the household would be burned on the funeral pyre or buried alive. Such was the Hindu rite, to burn the wife or wives when the husband passed away.

Mohammedan Conquest

The permanent Mohammedan conquest was inaugurated in 1175. The agent of this revolution was Mohammed of Ghor, known among his own people as "the flame of religion". It was his pride not only to destroy images and infidels but also to turn each season's conquest into a province under governors of his choice. His work was rather thoroughly done. During the first twelve years the

sum of his gains was only Sind and the Punjab, which were already in Mohammedan hands. During the period that followed, however, one capital after another fell into his power at intervals of two or three years, including Delhi and Benares. At last, in 1206, he was murdered by a religious fanatic, having warred upon India for thirty-one years, though he was Sultan for only three.

His successor was a Turkish general named Kutb-ud-din, who in 1206 took up his residence in India as the first Sultan of Delhi. He was a slave and gave high appointments to fellow-slaves, but this was no anomaly among Mohammedan princes. The later Sultans of Delhi exhibit the characters usual to men who are raised in palaces, some addicted to pleasure and sensuality, some appreciative of beauty in literature and art, and a few moved by ambition. The boundaries of their rule were extended over Bengal to the East. In Bihar, the Holy Land of Buddhism, the surviving monasteries of that creed were destroyed, and the monks who were not killed became fugitives. The true home of Buddhism had long since been in Tibet.

Invasion by Genghis Khan

At the beginning of the twelfth century a diversion was caused by the appearance of Genghis Khan, the great Mongol empire-builder. This was towards the close of his triumphant career, after he had mastered Mongolia, northern China, Turkestan, and Persia. In 1221 his grim Mongols with their shaggy horses emerged from the Khyber Pass and occupied Peshawar. It seemed as if India's turn had come, because the troops which opposed the enemy at the Indus were swept aside, but Genghis Khan had other plans and secret worries. It mattered little that his men complained of the heat, the dirty water, and the lack of melons in India. The truth was that ancient wounds were bidding the old man to make haste if he would complete the conquest of China, in which his generals had failed. He

abandoned a plan of reaching his goal through the mountains of Kashmir and Tibet, and departed the way he had come.

In 1290 the Turkish slave-dynasty came to an end in Delhi, but the new ruler, Jalal-ud-din, was also a Turk. This was the period, from 1000 to 1500, when the Turkish race was steadily producing men of vigour, ability and ambition, both in Europe and in Asia. The new dynasty at Delhi was called upon to repel repeated raids of the Mongols. Three thousand of them, who had been permitted to settle in a suburb of Delhi upon professing the faith of Islam, were coldly massacred in 1297. The armies of the Sultans of Delhi were sometimes led by slave-eunuchs. One of these led an expedition into the Deccan, the first for many centuries, tempted by the gold that flowed into the peninsula from overseas trade. So rich was this region that only gold coins were in use. The plunder carried away was employed to beautify Delhi.

A Mad Sultan

In 1325 a mad genius gave the spice of variety to India's annals by becoming Sultan. This was Mohammed Adil, who had created a vacancy by arranging to have a pavilion collapse upon his father Tughlak. His reign marks the peak of the power of the Sultanate. It embraced twenty-four provinces and extended from Sind to eastern Bengal and from the mountains to the extremity of the Deccan. This son of Tughlak thought himself another Genghis Khan and lost a huge army in a wild attempt to invade China; the men perished in the mountains. It seems to be a law of history that the ability of soldiers from hot countries to endure cold is much less than the capacity of soldiers from cold countries to endure heat. The permanent conquests of the Arabs, for example, never extended beyond the sub-tropical belt of Europe and Asia. On the other hand, it has repeatedly been the destiny of countries like Morocco,

Egypt, Syria, Persia and India to be ruled by dynasties from colder parts. The narrow defile of the Khyber Pass is the chief entrance by land to the vast realms of India. No conquering army ever issued northwards from it, but for thousands of years it has afforded ingress to armies from without. Only the guns and aeroplanes of the British army make it safe to-day.

To return to the mad Sultan, it was one of his insane designs to abandon Delhi and move his capital to Deogiri in the Deccan, which he did. It is recorded that not a cat or a dog was left in Delhi, and that a bedridden man, who had been overlooked, was ordered to be shot from an engine designed to heave boulders against fortifications; a blind man similarly overlooked was dragged by the heels until only a leg was left. This human brute, who used to command rebellious populations to be put to death before the palace in such numbers that the executioners became exhausted, strangely enough, possessed virtues rare in eastern palaces: he abstained from wine and was moral in his habits; his daring and courage were beyond question. He was also intellectual. The range of his knowledge throws a flash of light upon the learning of his age: he understood Persian and Arabic; he was trained in logic, mathematics and Greek philosophy. That his empire began to crumble before his death is not astonishing; cruelty does not beget obedience, especially among religious races.

In another chapter it will be told how these later Middle Ages witnessed the erection of beautiful buildings in both Asia and Europe. Firoz, cousin and successor of the mad Tughlak in India, had a grand opportunity to indulge this taste for architecture when he moved the capital back to Delhi and built an entirely new city alongside of the old. He also improved the neighbourhood of the capital by digging a system of canals around it, which was done by forced labour. In religion he was a narrow-minded Mohammedan and he anticipated Christian Europe in

religious persecution. He commanded a Brahman to be burned to death for performing Hindu rites in public. He was also an iconoclast and delighted to destroy idols, which the Hindus loved and the Mohammedans abominated. The usual poll-tax was collected from all who rejected the faith of Islam; its remission tempted many to become converts. There are some sixty millions of Mohammedans in India to-day.

Invasion of Tamerlane, 1398

Quite comparable with the invasion of Genghis Khan in 1221 was the appearance in India of Tamerlane (Timur) in 1398. As usual, the musters of Indian princes, in spite of their war elephants, were no match for the seemingly disordered but really well disciplined squadrons of the Mongol horsemen. It was written "that he swept the country with a bitter whirlwind of rapine and pillage". Across the river from Delhi he commanded a multitude of prisoners to die by the sword. The new capital, called Firozabad from its builder, had been easily captured; in the far-distant Caucasus the terrible Mongol had taken cities a hundred times better defended by man and nature. Fortunately for India, Tamerlane seemed to be merely raiding, not conquering. He withdrew and made a triumphal return to Samarkand with his stolen treasures, which were conveyed in the procession by ninety-seven teams of stolen elephants. In his train were also two hundred stone-masons, who were abducted to reproduce for him an exquisite mosque, which had captured his admiration near Delhi.

The last of the Tughlaks was ruling when Tamerlane paid his visit, and a genuine Afghan or Pathan dynasty succeeded. The recuperative power of India, both in population and in wealth, is so great that a devastating invasion was only an episode. Tamerlane's raid was followed by a pestilence so much more destructive that "for

two months not a bird moved wing in Delhi". The ensuing years were punctured by rebellions and civil wars, as always; independent Mohammedan kingdoms arose in Bengal, Jaunpur and Gujarat. In the Deccan five sultanates were founded. In this region the religion of Islam had never been so strong as in the north, and it is not astonishing to find a Hindu kingdom flourishing, that of Vijayanagar, a centre of learning and culture. It was still in its splendour when visited by Portuguese travellers in 1535, though the rulers were always at war with their Mohammedan rivals.

When the first Europeans arrived in the Deccan in 1497 India was ready for another dynasty. The empire of the Tughlak rulers had split up into as many parts as there were lucky and ambitious princes. During the three centuries of Mohammedan rule the court language known as Urdu came into use. The rulers spoke Turkish, Persian or Arabic, but their subjects were for the most part Hindus. Urdu, also called Hindustani, contains words from all these languages, but the basis of it was the native dialect prevalent around Delhi. It was adopted as the language of public officials everywhere. A similar language, known as the Mandarin dialect, arose in China, for it must be remembered, that China, like India, is a vast country embracing many races and many tongues.

The diversities of race, of climate and geography, and of religion have cost India dearly. It is an Ancient Greece on a vast scale, where mountains and valleys condemn the people to disunity, but it is in worse plight than Greece ever was, because the jungles and forests separate men equally as well as mountain ranges. The chief cause of disunity, however, is the caste system. How could a Hindu army repel a Mongol horde when a single individual man may be an object of pollution to each of several hundred castes? To the Musulman every man is equal to every other man before God, and this feeling gave a terrible unanimity to every host of Islam. It explains why a few thousands of

Mohammedans could conquer and rule the millions of Hindus. The real despot of India was, and is, the Brahman, who compels the whole race to sacrifice everything for an absurd religion. It pays more reverence to a lean cow or an insect than to human beings. The fear that the soul of an ancestor may reside in a common beast or a worm is stronger than regard for one's fellow-man or love of country.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE MIDDLE AGES IN CHINA AND JAPAN

Similarities of East and West.

CHINA.—Limits of the Middle Ages in China, 220-1368 A.D.—The Oath in the Peach Orchard—Story of Three Famous Friends—Difference between Northern and Southern Chinese.

THE SUI DYNASTY.—Frequent Shifting of the Capital—Learning Under the Sui Dynasty—Popularity of Buddhism—Description of Buddhist Buildings—Growth of Buddhism and Christianity Simultaneous.

THE TANG DYNASTY, 618-907.—The Golden Age of Chinese History—Diverse Culture of the Capital, Changan—The Ceremony of the Kotow—The Turks under the Tang Dynasty—Romantic Story of the Empress, Lady Wu.

HSÜAN TSUNG.—Maximum Western Extension of Chinese Empire—The Pear Garden and the Drama—Prosperity and Culture—Results of Famines, Floods and Pestilence.

RELIGIOUS PERSECUTIONS.—Temporary Persecutions of Foreign Religions—Epoch of Five Dynasties.

SUNG, TARTAR AND MONGOL DYNASTIES.—Raiding Empires of the North—Origin of the Southern Sung Dynasty—Raiding Empire of Genghis Khan.

KUBLAI KHAN.—Capital moved to Peking by Kublai Khan—Magnitude of Chinese Trade—Alcoholism among the Mongol Rulers.

SERFDOM, FEUDALISM AND CHIVALRY.—Knighthood in Medieval China—Serfdom Always Existent—Slavery.

JAPAN.—Primitive Inhabitants of Japan—Origins of Japanese Feudal Society—Beneficient Influence of Buddhism.

RULE OF THE SHOGUNS.—Meaning of the Shogunate—Japanese Poetry—Successful Defence against Kublai Khan.

The term Middle Ages was adopted to denote the long interval between ancient and modern times in western Europe, but excellent reasons may be advanced for employing it in writing of the history of China. One reason is this, that the Tartars, Mongols and Turks were pressing their way into northern and western China in precisely the same way that the Germanic tribes, the Huns and the Turks were invading the western ring of lands that bordered the older civilization of the Mediterranean and western Europe. Another excellent reason is this, that during this period the religion of Buddha, with its images,

shrines, monasteries and sacred writings, was spreading over China in precisely the same way that Christianity, with its images, shrines, monasteries and Holy Scriptures, was spreading over Europe. These two similarities are so striking that mention of others may be postponed.

China

It has already been told how Genghis Khan established his Mongol Dynasty in 1206. The Middle Ages may be said to have come to an end in China when this foreign line of kings was replaced by the Ming Dynasty in 1368, which was genuinely Chinese. It was under the rule of the Mings that Portuguese navigators first arrived in Chinese ports, ushering in the modern era. The beginning of the Middle Ages in China may be set at the fall of the Han Dynasty in 220 A.D., when the tribes of the central deserts began to prove too strong to be repulsed.

During the first four hundred years of this epoch there was a perplexing succession of kingdoms, none of which long outlasted its founders. Nevertheless, it is the most romantic period in the annals of China, and yielded a cycle of stories comparable to those that clustered around the names of King Arthur and Charlemagne in English and French literature. To this day the professional story-tellers of China, who follow their calling in small booths like stores or shops, entertain their casual listeners with tales of the heroes of this time. One of their favourites is the story of the three friends Liu Pei, Kuan Yü, and Chang Fei, who swore an eternal covenant of friendship in a peach orchard. This was done by each pricking a finger with a pin, squeezing a drop of blood into a cup of wine and all three taking a sip of the liquid. It signified that they should give their lives for one another if necessary.

Liu Pei was the self-appointed ruler of one of the three kingdoms into which the Empire had been divided. His capital was at Chengtu in west China. His rivals, self-

appointed like himself, were the King of Wei in the North and the King of Wu in the East. One of the three friends, Kuan Yü, was killed in a war with the northern kingdom, and Liu Pei, along with the surviving friend, set out to avenge him. Both perished, one during the advance and the other during the retreat. None of the three accomplished anything worthy of record in history, but their fidelity immortalized their names in literature and art. The Oath in the Peach Orchard became a favourite subject for painters. Kuan Yü was officially deified as the God of War in 1594 and many a temple has been erected in his honour in Chinese cities.

The Three Kingdoms were united after sixty years, but disasters from without had been invited by disunion within the Empire. The Great Wall proved to be little more effective against the Tartars than the long series of Roman walls and towers between the Rhine and the Danube was effective against the German tribes. The Tartars entered China to remain, and for three hundred years they ruled the North after a fashion. They received multitudes of Chinese soldiers into their armies and adopted Chinese ways themselves. This intermixture of races affected the physical appearance of the population in the north, which is easily distinguished from that of the southern people. It also had an effect upon their characters; the northern Chinese are prouder and more assertive; the southern Chinese have been more submissive; they take to industries and trade more willingly.

The Sui Dynasty

The division between the North and the South was obliterated again in 589, when Yang Chien, a strong but unlettered man, made himself Emperor. He had been ennobled under the name Duke of Sui, and his house is known as the Sui Dynasty. Such changes of name are the rule rather than the exception in the history of China, and

render it very perplexing. Another bewildering feature is the frequent shifting of the capital from one city to another. The founder of the Sui Dynasty chose to rule from Changan, now Sianfu, in the valley of the Wei River. His reign was remarkable for the execution of large undertakings. To avoid rapids and sand bars in the Wei River, a canal one hundred miles long was constructed. The Great Wall was extended westward two hundred and thirty-three miles. Such public works, though useful, were carried out at great expense of human suffering by forced labour. The misery of the people was increased by pestilence. Famine and pestilence are regular incidents in the history of China, as in that of India. China suffers more from floods.

Succeeding members of the Sui Dynasty pursued similar policies. New canals made it possible to travel by boat from Changan to the Yangtse. The last king moved the capital to Loyang, which he beautified by creating an artificial lake with artificial islands, all surrounded by a magnificent park with the usual pavilions. He seems to have aimed to make Loyang a rival of Changan as a centre of learning. One hundred scholars were assembled to compile an encyclopaedia, which, in addition to such topics as geography, literature and medicine, treated of others more characteristic of China, foretelling the future, and the training of dogs and falcons for hunting. A royal library was founded.

Although these four centuries (220-618) were times of great disorder and misery, they were also times of constructive change. Chinese travellers visited India, and still greater numbers of Buddhist missionaries continued to arrive from that country. Buddhism, like Christianity, was destined to meet with the best reception in lands far distant from the place of its origin. Chinese converts were made among all classes. In 517 a prince of Nanking became such an ardent Buddhist that he forbade the figures of men or animals to be woven into silk cloth, for fear they should be

mutilated by cutting in making a garment. At the same time an empress in the north sent an embassy to Bihar, the Holy Land of Buddhism, and imported a library of religious books. A convent of Buddhist nuns was attached to her palace.

As for the common run of men, the Buddhist monastery offered great attractions to them as a refuge from unceasing war and disorder. The sites of the monasteries were chosen with an eye to both beauty and advantage, on lofty heights, and especially in the vicinity of mountain caverns. They were gradually beautified along the lines suggested by the nature of the place and the tastes of the Chinese race. Neat winding walks were so constructed as to lead to one pretty vista after another, through groves, gardens, and rockeries, along flowery hillsides, and across murmuring brooks. Walls of monasteries and caverns were adorned with scenes from the life of Buddha. The monks were often skilled artisans and erected tasteful quarters for themselves, for the saint himself, and for his relics. It was for the relics that the picturesque towers called pagodas were introduced, the first being dated about 250 A.D. They are not native to China.

It is a striking reminder of the unity of history that all these changes were going on during the very same years that Christian monasteries were being erected in western Europe. For example, the celebrated monastery which crowns the verdant sides of Monte Cassino between Rome and Naples was founded by St. Benedict in 529 A.D., only two years later than a famous Buddhist saint, Boddhidharma, arrived in Nanking on his way to northern China, where he inspired many similar foundations. The followers of the latter laboured among the races of the northern provinces and the followers of Benedict devoted themselves to the conversion of the German tribes in Central Europe. The religion of Islam was not yet born, but it was never its lot to transform, as Christianity and Buddhism did, the

pattern of life and the aspect of the landscapes in the colder regions of Europe and Asia.

The Tang Dynasty, 618-907

The epoch that followed the four centuries of disorder is sometimes called the Golden Age of Chinese History. It includes the Tang Period proper, 618-907, and a shorter period of Five Dynasties, 907-960, about three centuries in all. The capital was at Changan in the north. It was a creative epoch in various lines, poetry and the drama, painting, science and invention. It witnessed the beginnings of printing.

The capital Changan was perhaps the outstanding city of the world. Commerce was flourishing. China was exchanging its wares with far-distant Syria by the caravan routes and with India and Egypt by sea. Embassies from Persia, India, Tibet, Cambodia, Korea and Japan met in the streets. There was an Imperial College with 8,000 students enrolled, many of them from foreign countries, notably Korea and Japan. All known religions were treated with tolerance. By the order of the Emperor a monastery for twenty-one Christian monks was erected in the city. These were of the Nestorian sect and arrived from Persia in 635. A stone pillar with inscriptions setting forth their doctrines was erected in 781 and was rediscovered in 1625. There was also in Changan a Temple of the Fire-Worshippers, who came as refugees from Persia when that country was overrun by the Mohammedans in 638. In history they are known as Zoroastrians. The Parsees in Bombay belong to the same sect.

The armies of Islam never assailed China, but Mohammedans began to arrive in Changan within a century after the death of Mahomet. In 715 an envoy from Arabia refused to perform the kotow before the Emperor, declaring that he bowed his head to God alone. It happened that the kotow seemed to be almost a travesty of the attitude

assumed by Mohammedans in prayer; it consisted in bowing the head three times before the throne, and with each bow touching the floor three times with the forehead. The Arab envoy was condemned to death by the officers of the court but pardoned by the Emperor. To-day the number of Mohammedans in China, chiefly in the west, is about 10,000,000, and they have been guilty in recent years of cruel massacres. In ancient times there was usually



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

(Left) Marble Figure of the Sleeping Buddha, Honan, China, Tang Dynasty (618-906 A.D.). (Right) Stone Buddhistic Figure (c. 100 A.D.) Typical of the Gandhara Sculpture.

toleration for all. It has been mentioned already that the religion of Islam also came by sea to Canton, and that at a very early date, before 700, but this colony never became very important.

The Tang Dynasty was established in the usual way. The Duke of Tang took the capital by force of arms and made himself ruler. In this adventure he had the assistance of a Turkish army, being himself the son of a Turkish mother. In this epoch, it may be mentioned, the Turks

became closely associated with the Chinese. The two races were often at war, but understood each other thoroughly. The second Tang emperor enrolled Turks in his Imperial Guard, and even appointed some to high offices in the government. He was also recognized by the Turkish tribes as their chieftain and received the title of Celestial Khan.

In the life of the third Tang emperor a romantic incident occurred. To distract the attentions of the Emperor from a concubine of whom she was jealous, the Empress brought into the palace a pretty Buddhist nun who had won his majesty's favour. The newcomer contrived to oust the Empress herself and to take her place. She insisted upon sitting with her husband in the imperial council, and after his death, by poison, she ruled in his stead. For consistency she had no regard: she was a Buddhist, but took human life without compunction; she was religious but unscrupulous; she was without mercy to those who stood in her way, but chose wise men to advise her. In history she bears the name of Lady Wu.

Hsüan Tsung

The reign of Hsüan Tsung (713-736) is remarkable for the extension of Chinese prestige in Central Asia. In this epoch the most dangerous neighbours on the west were the Cathayans, the Turks and the Tibetans. The Turks were the most formidable, but they were no match for the armies of this particular emperor. Chinese armies penetrated westward to the Oxus and Jaxartes Rivers, which flow into the Sea of Aral, a region which had once been conquered by Alexander the Great. These campaigns might have resulted in Central Asia adopting Chinese civilization had not the armies of Islam proved more effective a couple of generations later.

This strong emperor Hsüan Tsung, who in his youth had made a bonfire of the silks and satins of the harem, became a lover of pleasure in his later years. His court

was more renowned for brilliancy than for thrift or virtue. It was dominated by a beautiful woman called the Fairy Queen, who was induced to expel a wise and famous poet, Li Po. An artist named Wu Tao-yuan is said to have decorated a wall of the imperial courtyard with a painting of a grotto so realistic that he disappeared into it from the sight of the Emperor and was never seen again. This reminds one of the tale of the Greek sculptor Daedalus, who was said to have made statues so life-like that chains were placed upon them to prevent them from walking away. The Chinese sentiment for blossoms manifests itself in the fame of the Pear Garden, a court of the palace where plays were presented. It was said that the drama had its origin there, which is hardly true, but the Emperor Hsüan Tsung is still regarded as the patron saint of the acting profession, and a picture of the Pear Garden is as necessary to a Chinese theatre as a bust of Shakespeare to an English theatre.

A huge, productive country like China, with a population unsurpassed for industry, quickly repairs the losses of war during a period of peace, and it was so during the Tang epoch. It is recorded that under the long reign of Hsüan Tsung the population grew from 37,000,000 to 53,000,000. The increasing desire for education is evidenced by the fact that schools were opened in every village. This was a tribute to the popular reverence for Confucius, whose writings served for text-books. Attached to the imperial court was a College of Astronomy, which possessed a clock and also a celestial sphere, revolving once in twenty-four hours; power was furnished by a water-engine. The Emperor was advised by a group of experts who constituted a sort of Royal Academy of Science; it is known as the Hanlin Academy. The Chinese, it may be mentioned, have always accorded to scholars a higher position than other races.

The long prosperity of the Tang period was punctuated

by the usual famines, plagues of locusts, and by pestilence. The Chinese have a belief that a minor famine arrives every three years and a major famine every ten years. Famines are caused either by lack of rain or by an excess of it, which drowns out the crops. Famine in turn brings rebellion against abuses of the government, which are more easily tolerated in years of plenty. One of these rebellions was so successful that the Emperor Hsüan Tsung was forced to surrender his favourite, the Fairy Queen, to be strangled. The old Emperor was heart-broken, and sought consolation in the company of Taoist priests, who pretended to put him in communication with the spirit of the lost lady, who, they told him, was awaiting his arrival in the Islands of the Blest.

Religious Persecutions

Even in those remote days there were occasional waves of prejudice against foreign religions. The Empress Wu persecuted the Nestorian Christians. In 845 by imperial decree all foreign religious establishments were closed and the inmates dispersed. The information furnished by the records of this measure reveals the progress made by the missions of the time. The number of temples and convents destroyed was 45,000. Their size and wealth is evidenced by the fact that 150,000 slaves belonging to them were liberated, and thousands of acres of land came into the possession of the State. A quarter of a million Buddhist monks and nuns were forced to find refuge where they could. The number of Christian and Zoroastrian teachers affected was only 3,000. To the credit of the government it must be added that no one was asked to renounce his faith or to face death for the sake of his creed.

The Tang Dynasty came to an end after a fashion that is native to China. The indifference and misrule of the eunuchs who dominated the imperial household furnished the excuse for rebellion, and at the same time a series of

droughts, famines, and plagues of locusts released tens of thousands of hungry men from the usual restraints of society. The last fifty-three years of the epoch witnessed the rise of five dynasties, none of which ruled the whole country. One of them was headed by a Turk, whose race had long been apt pupils of all the older civilizations that surrounded his ancestral home in Central Asia. The hour had come when the last migrations of the hordes of Central Asia and Central Europe were about to occur. The Seljuk Turks were soon to enter Asia Minor and Syria; the Northmen were ravaging the coasts of the North Sea; the Normans were soon to conquer England. China was to receive its next great dynasty from the Mongolian deserts.

Sung, Tartar and Mongol Dynasties

The Sung Dynasty was founded by a Chinese general who was raised to the rank of emperor by his own soldiers. It lasted for 318 years in all but never enjoyed possession of the whole country. The Northern Sung came to an end in 1127 and the Southern in 1278. At the beginning of the Sung period the Tartars north of the Great Wall established a vigorous empire known as Cathay. It was of the usual raiding variety, and collected tribute of the Chinese without assuming the responsibility of governing. Failure to pay the annual tribute was the signal for invasion and wholesale plundering. In the tenth century China's tax was 100,000 ounces of silver and 200,000 pieces of silk. In the following century the tribute of silver was doubled and that of silk trebled. At the same time the rival Tartar state of Hsia on the north-east demanded annually 250,000 ounces of silver and the same number of pieces of silk and packages of tea. This information reminds us that the use of tea spread to the land neighbours of China far earlier than the beginnings of the tea trade with Europe. The earliest mention of tea occurs in records of the third century, and the use of it must have increased very slowly.

In the twelfth century the Cathayan empire gave way to the Chin, which means Golden. The Tartars who founded the Chin Dynasty came from the region of the Amur River in eastern Manchuria, and are known in history as the Golden Horde. This is not to be confused with the Golden Horde of the Mongol race which conquered Russia a century later (p. 281). The empire they founded was of the raiding type common in Asia. In the year 1126 the Golden Horde very craftily chose the occasion of the Chinese New Year's festivities for an invasion. They were bought off by means of an enormous tribute of gold, silver, silk and satin, not to omit horses and cattle. The next year they came again, and made it necessary for the Chinese emperor to move his capital from Kaifeng on the Yellow River (Hoang-ho) to Hangchow on the Yangtse, where it remained for a century and a half, until 1276. The dynasty that ruled there is known as the Southern Sung.

In the meanwhile some mysterious energy seemed to possess the Tartar tribes. They were destined to play the leading role in the affairs of Asia for some three centuries. In the middle of the twelfth century the Mongols, having learned the lessons of war on the restless borderland of Chinese civilization and Tartar barbarism, broke away from the Chin Empire and declared their independence. This was largely due to the demoniacal strain of genius that manifested itself in the family of Genghis Khan, whose conquests are told in a separate chapter. At first his empire was of the raiding type. He invaded China every year over a considerable period before he made himself permanent master of all the northern part. Then in 1219 he turned his attention to the rich kingdoms of the south-west, out of which the richly laden caravans of the silk merchants returned annually with the precious wares of Persia, Arabia and Syria. The task of conquering the Sung Emperors of southern China was left to his generals.

Kublai Khan

Ghenghis Khan left a numerous family of sons and nephews to inherit his vast conquests. The most illustrious of these was Kublai Khan, the subject of a once popular stanza by the English poet Coleridge. He might well be placed in the class known as "enlightened despots". He abandoned the capital built at Karakorum in the Mongolian Desert by his grandfather Genghis and moved the seat of government to Peking. This became famous in Europe under the name of Cambaluc, which is a corruption of the Mongol Khanbalik, which means "the city of the Khan". It was under Kublai that the Southern Sung Dynasty was conquered and China became once more a united country. He ruled over an empire vaster than that of his grandfather. It extended over Russia in Europe and over Korea in the east. Japan he failed to subdue, in spite of vast expenditures of blood and money. Tibet came under his sway but Burma he brought within range of his raids rather than of his rule. The climate defeated his generals in this quarter just as the climate of India had defeated more than one invader.

It was under Kublai Khan (1259-1294) that medieval China reached the peak of its fame and prosperity. The overland traffic, which characterizes this long interval between ancient times and the discovery of America, reached its height. Envoys arrived at Cambaluc (Peking) from the courts of Europe, Arabia, Persia, India, Cambodia and Japan. The Emperor even requested of the Pope that one hundred Christian missionaries should be sent to China (p. 340). Trade by sea continued to flourish and reached all points from Canton to Egypt, including Annam, the Spice Islands, Sumatra, Java, India, Persia and Arabia. It was chiefly in the hands of the Arabs. At the same time the Southern Sung Dynasty, ruling the more industrialized parts of the Empire down to 1278, had also been interested in trade, and sent agents to foreign countries to encourage

it. All articles of export and import were smartly taxed, and contributed no small part of the imperial revenues. Under Kublai Khan the Grand Canal was extended so as to create a continuous inland waterway from Hangchow, the southern capital, to Cambaluc, the northern capital. The chief function of this waterway was to transport the tribute of rice from the southern provinces to the north. It was loaded upon barges, labouriously towed for hundreds of miles by human beings. In China it is said that sixty men out of every hundred are still employed in transportation and only forty in production.

The curse of Mongol rulers was alcoholism. They quickly deteriorated in palaces, surrounded by the pleasures that are thrust upon princes. Kublai died in 1294 and his heirs for the most part enjoyed but short reigns. In 1368 the Ming Dynasty was established by a valorous young man who is said to have been a cook in a Buddhist monastery before he took to arms. It was under this dynasty that the modern period dawned.

Serfdom, Feudalism and Chivalry

Since we have adopted the term Middle Ages in writing of Chinese History the question might reasonably be asked, What of serfdom, feudalism and chivalry? As for chivalry, the answer might be given that without the saddle and the stirrups there would never have been an age of chivalry in Europe, and the saddle and the stirrups were almost certainly a gift of China to the world. Furthermore, the Chinese possessed large and handsome riding horses before they were common in western Europe. Magnificent images of them, done in glazed porcelain, have been found in Chinese tombs, and life-size images in stone, fully accoutred, also exist. As for the emperors, King Solomon himself was not more proud of his stables than they. On the other hand, from the tombs of the Mings, that is, at the beginning of the modern period, it is manifest that knighthood had declined;

they yield only images of the small and mean Mongolian ponies. The cross-bred horses had disappeared. In Europe they survived as farm-horses, but in China the patient ox retained his place before the plough. The ox is better suited to the poor Chinese peasant.

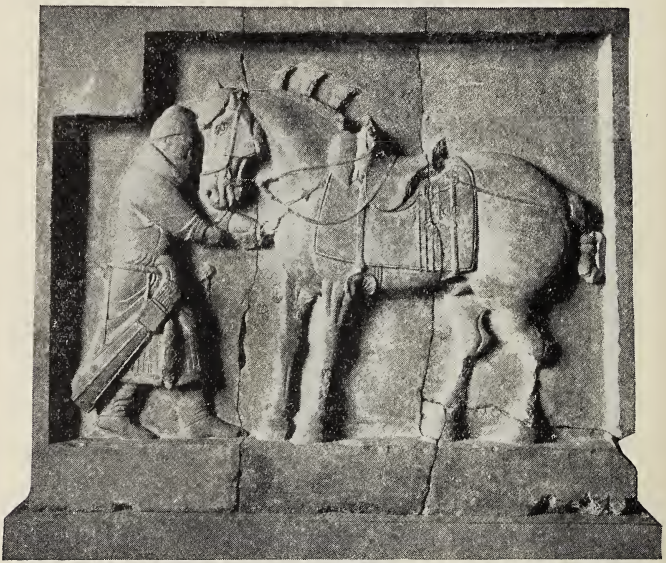


Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

CHINESE GLAZED POTTERY CAMEL AND TURKISH ATTENDANT.
TOMB OF GENERAL YANG, 672 A.D.

As for the spirit of chivalry, it prevailed in the fabulous days of the Three Kingdoms. There was feudalism too, and powerful landlords ruled large estates worked by serfs. Missionaries, who know China well, sometimes say that in China it is always Middle Ages. The great empire-builder Hwang-ti, as early as 216 B.C., had issued an edict

abolishing serfdom, but such opposition was aroused that the decree could not be enforced. In 1910, just before the recent Revolution, a decree was issued for the alleviation of serfdom, which shows that it has always prevailed. It is bound to prevail wherever barbarians who despise agriculture conquer countries where the people till the soil. Every



Courtesy University of Pennsylvania Museum

"PURPLE SWALLOW", HORSE OF TANG TAI TSUNG, FOUNDER OF THE TANG DYNASTY (618-907 A.D.)

conquest of China, whether by Tartars, Mongols or Manchus, meant an increase and an aggravation of serfdom for multitudes of patient, industrious and long-suffering Chinese. During the modern period ten thousand of them toiled on the vast estates of their Manchu landlords alone.

Slavery has existed in China at all times, and still exists. It has been partly the result of conquests and partly the

result of plagues, floods and famines. In times of extreme distress the girls are sold to procure food for the brothers and parents. The purchaser pays only a small part of the price that he thinks a little girl will be worth in his household, for the slave-buyer is a hard bargainer.

Japan

Japan is situated with respect to Asia as Great Britain with respect to Europe, just beyond the borders of a continental area of culture. It is also situated on the northern margin of the great Rice Area, the centre of which is in the East Indies. It was probably by way of Formosa and other islands in the Pacific Ocean that the rice-growers reached Japan, but they were late-comers in the country. Before them the hairy Ainus inhabited the shores, living off fish, shell-fish and game. Some 20,000 of these Ainus still survive in the northern parts, where they were driven for refuge; short, muscular men, bearded to the eyes, with abundant growth of hair upon their bodies. Like most primitive men, they are said to be gluttons and drunkards, and fit for only the most menial toil. Like many American Indians, they have the bear for a totem, the flesh of which they eat once a year as a sort of sacrament. They worship the sun and various demons, a typical stone-age religious complex.

It is extremely likely that still a different race preceded the Ainus in Japan, because kitchen-middens, composed of the refuse from prehistoric villages, bones of animals and fish, and lost and broken implements, are found along the shores just as around the Baltic Sea, the Bay of Biscay, and other sites where human life is known to have been extremely ancient. The Japanese, however, are distinct from either of the earlier races. Their history is such that one may infer with fair certainty what happened before records were written. The islands must have been inhabited by a grain-growing folk, who were invaded and conquered

by a race that despised agriculture, probably from Manchuria. This resulted in a feudal system quite similar to the feudal system that arose when the proud German chieftains took possession of Gaul (France) and other agricultural provinces of the Roman Empire. The invaders became landlords and war-lords, while the conquered became their servants. Next to the landlords, called *daimios* by the Japanese, the most esteemed class was the *samurai*, the swordsmen or warrior class. All other men possessed only an economic value, carpenters, armourers, farmers and fishermen. Unskilled men were outcasts.

This feudal system, with all its accompaniments, such as incessant wears among the chieftains, comfort for the few, and hard toil and poverty for the many, lasted down to modern times. A few men are still living in Japan who once fought in complete suits of armour. The country lagged behind China and Korea. In the fourth century the best people were still living in flimsy houses of wood. A great awakening came in the fifth century with the arrival of Buddhism. It would be more amazing that such a peaceful religion should have spread so rapidly among a military people if we were not aware that Christianity was winning its way at the very same time in the warring society of western Europe. The emperors were more hospitable to the new faith than were the daimios, and temples and monasteries increased rapidly in number. The artistic instincts of the people were aroused by the new necessity for images and paintings. The old Shinto shrines, with their roofs of small logs like the primitive dwellings, fell into contempt beside the new Buddhist temples with their bright colours in lacquer and gilt. A new age had begun.

Rule of the Shoguns

The adoption of a pacific religion like Buddhism did not turn out to the advantage of the emperors, and increased the power of the daimios, who were even more self-assertive

than the barons of England in the time of King John. Out of this situation arose towards the end of the twelfth century the institution of the Shogunate. The word Shogun means commander-in-chief. Under the Shoguns, who ruled Japan until the revolution of 1867, the country was governed from the camp and not from the court of the emperor. It was government by the daimios and for the daimios. One had charge of soldiers and police, a second of the finances, and a third of justice and the courts. Some of the Shoguns fixed their headquarters three hundred miles from Kyoto, where the Emperor lived, in order to be completely independent of his interference. Rebellions were promptly crushed, and the common people were assembled by the hundreds of thousands to perform by forced labour whatever work the Shoguns required. At the same time the Shoguns patronized artists and architects. The first of them, a pitiless, though able, man, erected a statue, which still exists, called the "Buddha of Infinite Compassion".

Scholars were never esteemed in Japan as they were in China; men were divided into four classes, warriors (*samurai*), farmers, artisans and merchants. Nevertheless, there was no lack of men of letters and poets. There was a famous group of poets in the thirteenth century, the very age when Dante and Petrarch were writing in Italy. There is a much renowned collection from this time called *Single Songs of a Hundred Poets,* though some of them were written much earlier. The first of them was composed by an emperor in exile and prison:

O Imperial House!
When I think of former days,
How I long for thee!
More than e'en the clinging vines
Gathered neath thine ancient eaves.

It is rather out of keeping with a time of military feudalism to note such a title as *Notes of a Ten-Foot-Square Hermitage*; the author lived in a small cabin furnished with a bamboo mat, a shelf with an image of Buddha placed to

greet the rising sun, a couple of pictures, and some volumes of poetry and Buddhist books of devotion in a black box. Another unwarlike title is *Weeds of Idleness*. It was at this time that the art of landscape-gardening was introduced from China. Soon afterwards came the tea-garden and the tea-ceremony, which was planned to inculcate "urbanity, courtesy, purity, and poise".

It was fortunate for Japan that she possessed a strong government at this time. The Mongol Empire was flourishing in China, and Kublai Khan was eager to add the island empire to his own. He never succeeded. His armadas, like those launched by Philip of Spain against England in the following century, were repulsed by acts of God as much as by valour. Japan lies in the typhoon area, and the storms occurred opportunely. Japan was spared to become a nation. In the following century, the sixteenth, the foreigner arrived and the modern period began with the despotism of the Shogunate at its height.

CHAPTER XXX

TRAVEL IN THE MIDDLE AGES

Ancient Misconception of the World—Indian and Arab Trade of Early Middle Ages—Mediterranean Ports in Early Middle Ages—Pilgrim Traffic to and from Palestine—The Chief Resorts of Pilgrims—Pilgrim Route by way of Constantinople—Maundeville's Description of Constantinople—Pilgrimages to Rome—Use of Mules as Riding Animals—Forest Roads and River Traffic—Various Beasts of Burden.

Chinese Travellers.—Bihar, The Holy Land of Buddhism—Pilgrimage of Fa Hsien—Chinese Sculptors Inspired by Buddhism—Description of a Turkish Khan, 629 A.D.—Yuan Cwang's Description of India—Return Journey to Kaifeng, the Capital.

A Jewish Traveller.—Description of Constantinople by Benjamin of Tudela—Jerusalem, Damascus and Bagdad—Incredible Tales—Description of Alexandria—Jewish Colonies of the Twelfth Century.

The Journey of Friar John.—A Papal Message to the Great Khan, 1243—Route of John of Plano Carpini—Coronation Ceremonies of a Great Khan—Audience granted to Friar John—Haughty Reply of the Great Khan.

A Lost Opportunity.

Journey of the Polos.—First Journey of the Polo Brothers to Cambaluc—Second Journey of the Polos with the Boy Marco—Marco's Career in China—His Opinion of the Mongol Dynasty—His Account of the Mongol Posting Service—His Account of the Silk Industry—The Scope of his Narrative—Slight Effect of Polo's Writings.

It is the nature of human beings to feel that the centre of the earth is situated where they live. This is true of the more cultured races as well as savages. The majority of the ancient Greeks, even when their intelligence was at its keenest, entertained this naïve idea. Herodotus, their most widely travelled historian, thought that where his knowledge ended population ended. He knew of India, but "beyond that the world was uninhabited". He names the tribes to the north of which he had heard the names, and "beyond that the world was uninhabited". Even Tacitus, the Roman historian, who lived more than five centuries later, names the German tribes of which he had heard the names, and beyond that point, he said, "the world was uninhabited". The Greek phrase for the universe was "the

inhabited earth". The belief prevailed that tenantless deserts surrounded it.

The bŏundaries of the known world were greatly extended long before the Middle Ages. Silk began to arrive in Rome in the days of Julius Caesar, and the early emperors made persistent efforts to make both the Red Sea and the Black Sea safe for merchant ships, and even to secure control of the caravan routes to China, India and Arabia. By sea they were rather more successful than by land, and two trade missions reached China by that route, one in 166 and the other in 222 A.D. Neither of these bore fruit and the trade of the Indian Ocean remained in the hands of Indian and Arab merchants until the ninth century. After that date the Brahmans in India placed travellers under a curse and the Arabs secured a monopoly, which they enjoyed until the first insolent ships of the Portuguese appeared in 1498.

In the Mediterranean there was a lull in maritime commerce while the northern races were seeking new homes by land, and when it came to life again a group of new ports like Venice, Amalfi, Pisa and Genoa came into prominence. From these ports ships sailed continuously to the cities in the East that tapped the great caravan routes north and south: on the Black Sea were Kaffa, Tana, and Trebizond; on the coast of Asia Minor were Smyrna and Adayan; on the Syrian and Palestine coasts were Antioch, Beyrout, Acre and Jaffa. The traffic of the Red Sea found an outlet through Alexandria.

Few, except merchants, sought the Black Sea ports, but Christian pilgrims furnished steady passenger lists to ships bound for ports in Palestine. Each pilgrim, if he was well advised, furnished himself with bedding and a strong box in which to keep his own wine and victuals and money. The voyage consumed several weeks; stops of several days were made at intermediate ports while the captain disposed of part of his cargo or sought more freight.

Arriving at a port in the Holy Land the pilgrim made a bargain with the captain to keep his box for him until his return. He then hired a donkey or a mule and joined the procession of men and women bound for the places rendered sacred by events of the Old and the New Testaments. Most renowned of all was the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, but the more zealous would endure the trying trip to Mt. Sinai. They rose by night to reach the summit at sunrise. They sought the spring which still flowed where Moses had struck the rock with his staff, and the valley where the children of Israel were said to have tarried for forty years. Over all the sacred places they were guided by pious monks. They were lodged everywhere in hostelries maintained by the monks for their convenience. It is doubtful whether modern tourist traffic is more diligently organized for the convenience of travellers.

Many pilgrims were too poor to travel by sea, because the passage required an outlay of hard money. The favourite route by land was the old Roman highway of the Rhine and the Danube, It was possible for the poor traveller with the symbol of the cross sewn on his garment or a palm leaf in his hand, to beg his way to Constantinople, and thence across Asia Minor to Damascus and Jerusalem. Pious people believed that they acquired merit in heaven by making the gift of a coin or furnishing lodging during the night to a poor palmer. Constantinople itself was an attraction with its great Church of St. Sophia. It was quaintly described in the narrative of Sir John Maundeville, who wrote after the Emperor had lost much of his realm to the Seljuk Turks:

> And there dwelleth commonly the Emperor of Greece. And there is the most fair church and the most noble of all the world. And it is of Saint Sophia. And before that church is the image of Justinian the Emperor, and he sits upon a horse y crowned. And he was wont to hold a round apple of gold in his hand: but is fallen out thereof. And men say there, that it is a token, that the Emperor hath y lost a great part of his land, and of his lordship: for he was wont to be Emperor of Rome and of

> Greece, of all Asia the less, and of the land of Syria, of the land of Judea, in the which is Jerusalem, of the land of Egypt, of Persia, of Arabia. But he hath lost all, but Greece; and that land he holds all only. And men would many times put the apple into the image's hand again, but it will not hold it. This apple betokeneth the lordship, that he had over all the world, that is round. And the tother hand he lifteth up against the East, in token to menace the misdoers. This image stands upon a pillar of marble at Constantinople.

The long journey to the Holy Land required a year for a well provided traveller, and often two or three years for the moneyless. Those who were unable to undertake so arduous an enterprise would desire at least to visit the tombs of Peter and Paul at Rome. The Vatican Palace of the Popes did not exist in the Middle Ages. A small, plain and ancient basilica received the pious where now the magnificent church of St. Peter fronts the spacious square. The tomb of St. Paul is on the opposite side of the city, for his martyrdom took place on the Appian Way. At the spot where his head is said to have fallen was another shrine, the Three Fountains. The city itself was not less well equipped to supply the pilgrims' needs than Jerusalem or Bethlehem. Hostelries existed for the healthy and hospitals for the sick.

Roads soon fall into disrepair, and their neglect in the Middle Ages completely altered the nature of travelling by land. It was no longer possible to throw a mass of cushions into a carriage and settle down for a comfortable journey of several hours or several days. The Middle Ages set a great premium upon mules. Almost all travellers, men and women alike, either owned or hired these animals and plodded their way through mud or dust to their destinations. It was thus that the pilgrims to the shrine of Thomas à Becket were mounted in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*. Merchants and scholars went in this fashion from city to city. Nobles and bishops might have horses and servants, but even people of high estate were often to be seen upon an unwarlike steed. Saddles were never used in ancient times

in the Mediterranean, and were slow to come into use in the Middle Ages. Only a saddle cloth without stirrups was commonly seen. The use of saddle and stirrup in Europe for a long time was confined to mounted knights in suits of chain-mail.

It must be remembered that large tracts of forest lands existed in Europe during the Middle Ages. These were carefully protected by the nobles for the sake of the hunting, but it was often profitable to cut a road through for the sake of the tolls that were levied upon merchandise. A new road of this kind was called by the Latin name *via rupta,* from which comes our word "route". The general vileness and dangerous character of these and other roads led to the development of river traffic wherever possible. Passengers and freight were loaded upon flat-bottomed barges, to be towed from landing to landing by men or mules. It was slow but it was not uncomfortable. A relic of this custom is preserved in the word "arrive", which comes through the French from the vulgar Latin *adripare,* 'come to the bank'. In general, it may be said that the river barge and the mule furnished transportation in Europe during the Middle Ages. Even the age of stage-coaches had not yet come.

In western Europe the breed of horses was much improved as the custom of fighting from horseback in chain-mail, that is, knighthood, came into fashion. In the early Middle Ages the Arabs, Persians and Chinese possessed much better horses. The Mongols used the native horses, which were small but enduring, but they possessed excellent saddles with stirrups. On the great caravan routes across the northern deserts between Europe and China the common beast of burden was the Bactrian camel, which has two humps. Magnificent images of these along with those of large and handsome horses are found in Chinese tombs of the early Middle Ages. The Bactrian camel also prevailed on the routes between China and India. In Arabia, Syria

and Mesopotamia the Arab camel was more common, which has but one hump. The finest of all horses were to be found in Persia. The Arab horse did not become famous until after the time of Mohammed.

Chinese Travellers

In the early Middle Ages the Chinese were great travellers by land, and the chief motive was the same as in Europe, religious. The Holy Land of Buddhism was in Bihar on the northern frontier of India near Nepal. By the Khyber Pass the pious devotees of Buddhism arrived from China to behold the places where the founder of their faith had lived, taught and died. Like the Christians, they revered all relics of their sainted master, and were especially eager to secure specimens to carry back to their shrines beyond the mountains. To read tales of these pilgrims it is necessary to go to Chinese literature, which is no less abundant than Christian literature of the same class in the Middle Ages.

One of these books tells of the pilgrimage of Fa Hsien, who set out in 399 A.D. and remained in India for some fifteen years. Those who call the Middle Ages the Age of the Land Ways may be astonished to learn that Fa Hsien chose to return by sea. On his way home, in the China Sea, the junk on which he was a passenger was almost wrecked by a typhoon, and the sailors were tempted throw him overboard as another Jonah. His life was saved by a pious Buddhist merchant, who interceded for him. He arrived at last in Nanking, and dedicated the rest of his life to translating Buddhist writings into his own tongue.

In the province of Gandhara on the north-west frontier of India, under Greek influence, the custom arose of making images of Buddha in bronze and stone. In the course of time this art gave an impetus to Chinese sculptors. It was encouraged by an empress named Lu of the Northern Wei, who in 518 sent an embassy to India. Her envoys returned

after two years with 170 books. This interest of her imperial majesty in Buddhism was not exceptional.

Outstanding among Chinese Buddhist pilgrims in India was Yuan Cwang, who arrived by the northern route across the Gobi Desert by way of Samarkand in 629, a date that coincides roughly with the arrival of St. Augustine in England and that of the first Mohammedans in Canton. All the world was prone to religious fervour in those days. Yuan Cwang tells of the grand tent of a Turkish Khan, by whom he was entertained on the way; it was embroidered with gold, and the Khan himself was dressed in gorgeous robes of green Chinese satin. The pilgrim was invited to preach to the assembled courtiers, and respect was shown to his religion by the serving of cakes, milk, candy, honey and grapes, though the rest of the company ate meat.

He tells of the motley population of the Punjab, which had received so many alien races, of the common knowledge of reading and writing, of Buddhist universities, and of the caste system. He tells also of ruined cities of great circuit, which reminds us that India was an ancient country in this century when England was still divided among rude Saxon kings. His chief interest, however, was in stories of Buddha, mostly miraculous and incredible, which he rehearses in place of information that to us would be priceless.

After sixteen years he returned to China with a knowledge of Sanskrit and hundreds of books. The latter were written upon palm leaves and birch bark trimmed to a uniform size and fastened with string. He began the homeward journey with a huge elephant as his chief beast of burden, but this was lost by drowning. In the end he arrived at Kaifeng, then the capital, on the Yellow River, with a string of horses laden with his treasures. These included 150 authentic relics of Buddha, and images of the god in gold, silver, crystal and sandal-wood. He was cordially received by the Emperor, but declined to enter his

service as an ambassador. He also refused to translate the writings of Lao Tse, the founder of Taoism, for the benefit of the Hindus. His choice was to retire to a monastery and devote the remainder of his life to translating his Buddhist treasures into the Chinese language.

A Jewish Traveller

Over against these remarkable journeys of Chinese scholars may be set long pilgrimages of learned men from Europe. In 1160 a Jewish rabbi, Benjamin of Tudela, left his native land of Spain to spend many years in foreign countries. His starting point was the Roman town of Saragossa (originally *Caesaraugusta*), and his route followed the old Roman roads along the coast to Genoa and thence to Rome and southern Italy. He crossed the sea to Greece and proceeded by land to Constantinople, giving curious information about Jewish communities everywhere, and about busy ports, whose very names are unknown or little known to-day. He tells us of the gold and silver pillars of the church of St. Sophia and of its "innumerable lamps of the same precious materials." He describes the throne room of the Emperor, the throne being of gold ornamented with precious stones. Above the throne was suspended a golden crown on golden chains, and the diamonds with which it was adorned "were of such lustre that they illumined the room even without other light."

His description of the Holy Land is a veritable guide-book for Jews, although he mentions also the Mount of Olives and the Holy Sepulchre thronged with Christian pilgrims. He notes that his countrymen had a monopoly of the industry of dyeing cloth in Jerusalem. Damascus was visited and from there he went to Bagdad, at that time one of the great cities of the world. The palace of the Caliph was "three miles in extent" and embraced "a large park filled with all sorts of trees, both useful and ornamental, and all kinds of beasts, as well as a pond of water

carried thither from the river Tigris." The Caliph appeared in public but once a year, when he rode in state on a royal mule to preach to the people in the mosque. His time was spent in weaving coverlets with his own hands, which he stamped with his seal and gave to his officers to sell to the nobility. He possessed sixty medical warehouses filled with spices and all necessaries, from which remedies were given free to the sick. There was also an asylum for the insane.

The Middle Ages were a time of credulity, and even this learned Jew rehearsed, and seems to have believed, incredible things. He tells of a tribe of Turks beyond Samarkand "who eat no bread and drink no wine, but devour the meat raw and unprepared; they have no noses, but draw breath through two small holes, and eat all sorts of meat, whether from clean or unclean beasts."

Very interesting is his account of Alexandria, its great lighthouse, and its business life. "People from all Christian kingdoms resort to Alexandria, from Valentia, Tuscany, Lombardy, Apulia, Amalfi, Sicily, Rakuvia, Catalonia, Spain, Roussillon, Germany, Saxony, Denmark, England, Flanders, Hainaut, Normandy, France, Poitou, Anjou, Burgundy, Mediana, Provence, Genoa, Pisa, Gascony, Aragon, and Navarre. From the west you meet Mahometans from Andalusia, Algarve, Africa, and Arabia, as well as from the countries towards India, Savila, Abyssinia, Nubia, Yemen, Mesopotamia and Syria, besides Greeks and Turks. From India they import all sorts of spices, which are bought by the Christian merchants."

The Journey of Friar John

In the early thirteenth century the Mongol Empire, which by this time included Russia, was ruled by Ogotai, son of the great conqueror Genghis Khan. Ogotai had designs of adding Europe to his dominions, and he invaded Poland and Hungary. This plan was interrupted by his death in 1241, an important event long unknown in Europe.

In 1243 a new Pope, Innocent IV, attempted to revive the spirit of the Crusades, but first he despatched an envoy threatening the Great Khan with the wrath of God and requiring him to accept baptism and become a Christian. He did not know that the Khan had died.

His envoy was a Franciscan friar named John of Plano Carpini, residing in Cologne. Friar John set out for Russia with the Pope's letters. Travelling across Poland and Russia he arrived in 1245 at Sarai, the new court of the Mongol governor on the Volga River. From there he was despatched with an escort of Tartars by a northern caravan route to the neighbourhood of the Mongol capital Karakorum in the Gobi Desert. The journey was a very trying one for Friar John, because he was sixty-five years old and corpulent of body. He wrote a short account of his journey, saying little of his privations, but he ventures to mention the fact that they often slept upon the ground and awoke with the snow drifting over them.

The rest of his narrative is precious because so little Christian literature of the kind survives from the Middle Ages. It chanced that Friar John's arrival coincided with the assembling of a grand council of all the Mongol chieftains for the election of the new Khan of Khans. From all points of the compass they came, from Russia, China, Persia and Arabia, riding over the mountains and plains with enormous trains of horses, camels, servants, soldiers and baggage. There were four thousand ambassadors and perhaps a dozen Sultans of the Saracens. All of them brought sumptuous gifts, gold, silver, horses and camels, and expensive trappings. Five hundred carts were required to convey the gold and silver which the new Khan distributed in honour of his coronation. All those attending the ceremonies were gorgeously attired in silks and satins and wore robes of a different colour each day.

Friar John was required to wait in his tent for months until the tumult of the coronation was over. It was a trying

interval because he was unable to drink the mare's milk which was offered to all guests in unlimited quantities, and the sweet alcoholic drink that was given him in its stead tended to make him intoxicated. At last, however, he was received in audience. There was difficulty over the language, because Friar John understood no language of Asia, Russian, Tartar, or Arabic. The royal court was better provided and scribes were able to interpret his letter and to make a translation of the Khan's reply into Latin. This reply has recently been found in the Vatican Archives in Rome. It is sealed with the royal seal, the writing upon which reads as follows:

> In the power of the eternal Heaven, the order of the oceanic Khan of the people of the great Mongols. The conquered people must respect it and fear them.

The Khan saw no reason why he should be baptized or submit to papal authority. "You in person," he wrote to the Pope, "at the head of kings, all together, without exception, come and offer us service and homage. Then we shall recognize your submission. And if you do not observe the order of God, and disobey our orders, we shall know you as our enemies."

A Lost Opportunity

The writings of Friar John and other Christian travellers throw a flash of light on Christianity in the thirteenth century. Its missionary zeal was at a low ebb. The Mongol Empire was then at its height in Central Asia, but it had embraced neither Confucianism, Buddhism nor Mohammedanism. It was not unfriendly to foreign religions, and might possibly have been Christianized. The opportunity was lost. Western Europe was destined to devote itself henceforward to war, politics, and business. The wave of missionary activity that had carried Christianity to the Germanic races in previous centuries had spent itself. A long interval was to elapse before modern missionary movements began.

Journeys of the Polos

The greatest travellers of the Middle Ages proved to be merchants and not missionaries. In 1253 two Venetian merchants named Nicolo and Maffeo Polo began a long journey from Constantinople. They went to the Crimea, where Italians had trading centres, and then across the deserts to Kazan and Bokhara. There they fell in with envoys of the new Mongol emperor, Kublai Khan, who had built his new capital of Cambaluc near the site of what is now Peiping. An invitation to visit this city was accepted, and the Polos journeyed under the best conditions. Kublai Khan was interested in Christianity and sent them home with a request for one hundred missionaries to teach his people the Christian faith. The Polos returned to Palestine, only to find that the papal throne was vacant. They waited for two years before an election took place. In the end they were forced to set out with two Dominican friars instead of one hundred, and both of these turned back, appalled by the length and hardships of the journey.

The Polos continued on their way, having in their company the boy Marco, son of Nicolo, who afterwards dictated the story of their travels and their long sojourn in China. To avoid an area of war they went through Cilicia and Armenia and so to Ormuzd on the Persian Gulf, intending to go by sea. Changing their plans a second time, they joined a caravan bound for India, from which they parted in due time to follow the southern caravan route into China.

At Cambaluc young Marco won the favour of Kublai Khan, learned the Tartar language, and was employed as a confidential agent of the government for seventeen years. The emperor was interested in all sorts of knowledge, especially about lands and races, and Marco satisfied his curiosity by virtue of his minute observations and capacious memory. He was with an imperial army during an invasion of Burma, and tells of the victory of the Mongol

archers over the Burmese elephants. He was even appointed governor of the great city of Yangchow, where he remained for three years.

Fortunately it was Marco and not his father or his uncle who dictated the story of their travels. His narrative enables us to correct some common errors concerning China and the Mongols. For example, it is commonly said that the latter were good conquerors but poor administrators. Marco's account would lead us to believe that, even if they did not improve the government of China, they certainly renewed its vigour and increased its efficiency. Let his account of the posting system be a witness:

How the Khan's Posts and Runners Are Sped Through Many Lands and Provinces

> Now you must know that from this city of Cambaluc proceed many roads and highways leading to a variety of provinces, one to one province, another to another; and each road receives the name of the province to which it leads; and it is a very sensible plan. And the messengers of the Emperor in travelling from Cambaluc, be the road whichsoever they will, find at every twenty-five miles of the journey a station which they call *Yamb*, or, as we should say, the Horse-Post-House. And at each of those stations used by the messengers, there is a large and handsome building for them to put up at, in which they find all the rooms furnished with fine beds and all other necessary articles in rich silk, and where they are provided with everything they can want. If even a king were to arrive at one of these, he would find himself well lodged.[1]

It is also fortunate that Marco belonged to a family of merchants, which gives him an advantage for us over Friar John and Friar William. The silk trade was at its height when he was in Cambaluc. Silk was a necessity, not a luxury, in China. In Europe, which was producing more and more wool, silk was a real luxury. Marco gives us this precious glimpse of the silk traffic in Cambaluc:

> As a sample, I tell you, no day in the year passes that there do not enter the city 1,000 cart-loads of silk alone, from which are made quantities of cloth of silk and gold, and of other goods.

[1]Sir Henry Yule, *Marco Polo*, Vol. I, p. 433.

> And this is not to be wondered at; for in all the countries round about there is no flax, so that everything has to be made of silk. It is true, indeed, that in some parts of the country there is cotton and hemp, but not sufficient for their wants. This, however, is not of much consequence, because silk is so abundant and cheap, and is a more valuable substance than either flax or cotton.[2]

It is not easy to overpraise this prince of medieval travellers. He saw with his own eyes the kingdoms of Asia, the greater part of China, and much of India. He described the commerce and lands of the Indian Ocean. He affords us a precious glimpse of Abyssinia, Madagascar and Zanzibar, though he did not visit them. His book is an economic survey of the medieval Orient. To read it is a priceless lesson in historical perspective. Accustomed as we are to think the history of the lands on the Atlantic fringe of Europe as all-important, it is a humbling and enlightening experience to find that the greater part of the world's art, architecture, literature, learning, and wealth in those days was confined to lands where the face of the European was extremely rare. The races of Europe were busily climbing towards something better than they had known, but they had still a long way to go.

At the same time it would be a great error to imagine that the narrative of Marco Polo awakened Europe out of its ignorance and self-satisfaction. There was no printing-press as yet, and his book had little effect upon public opinion for a long time. The Polos returned from China by sea to India, and thence by land. They reached Venice in 1295. The first printed edition did not appear until almost two centuries later, in 1477, and it was in German. The first edition in Latin was printed about 1490, and must have been more widely read. It was not printed in Italian until after the discovery of America. In the meantime Marco gained a posthumous notoriety as a romancer, and was known by the nickname of Il Milione, "The Million", because

[2] *Ibid*, p. 415.

of his seemingly incredible statements about the population of China. Men still went on believing that the centre of the earth was situated at Jerusalem. The writings of travelling friars enjoyed a greater vogue, because they were holy men. Only a fanatic like Christopher Columbus was inspired by the wonderful story of the great Venetian.

CHAPTER XXXI

THE HARVEST OF THE MIDDLE AGES

Mature Civilizations produce Art and Literature—Signs of the Birth of Modern Times.

New Languages and Literatures.—The Use of Latin in Western Countries—The Franks and Goths learn Latin—Specimens of Vulgar Latin—Multiplication of Dialects—Germanic Languages Reduced to Writing—The Tuscan Dialect of Italian—French Troubadours and German Minnesingers—Mystery, Miracle and Morality Plays—Career of the English Geoffrey Chaucer—Characters in his *Canterbury Tales.*

Architecture.—Significance of Domed Buildings—Romanesque Architecture in Italy—Christian Basilicas—Origin of the Gothic Style—Exterior of a Gothic Church—Interior of a Gothic Church.

Byzantine Art.—Importance of Constantinople—Life in Constantinople—Seat of the Patriarch of the Orthodox Church—Description of St. Sophia—Tendency of Byzantine Art.

Art of the Arabs.—Importance of Damascus—Peculiarities of Domed Mosques—Avoidance of Images—The Manufacture of Glass.

It is a law of history that nations produce works of art, wonderful books, and beautiful buildings, not while they are young and growing, but in the epoch when they reach their maturity and ripeness. For example, in the thirteenth century a circle of brilliant writers and teachers made its appearance in Italy. Their learning was the fruitage of the centuries following the fall of the Roman Empire, which are often called the Dark Ages. During the same Dark Ages builders of Europe were groping about for a style of architecture that would be suitable for the new cities and cathedral towns; the fruit of this movement was the exquisite Gothic architecture, which bestows upon the medieval cities a charm that is unrivalled to this day.

The culture of the Middle Ages was already in its autumn in the thirteenth century, and the winter of its decline was due to follow soon. The signs of the new life of modern times were manifesting themselves plainly. In England the people were developing by gradual stages the institution of parliamentary government, which was to be

as a lighthouse to Europe in later centuries. In the same country a Franciscan friar, Roger Bacon, by his scientific experiments was foreshadowing a time when religion would be compelled to relinquish its exclusive dominion over the attention of European minds. At the same time the increasing use of the mariner's compass and the steady expansion of sea-borne commerce was preparing the way for the discovery of new worlds. In the course of history there is no pause. Change is continuous. Old enthusiasms spend their force. Old ways of acting and thinking lose their freshness and fascination; they even outlive their usefulness, but new ideas and new practices creep in to take the place of the old. Except the seed die, can it live again?

New Languages and Literatures

One of the outstanding signs of the birth of nations in Europe during the later Middle Ages is the appearance of new languages. The Roman merchants, soldiers and colonists had carried the Latin language to all the provinces of the West. When the Franks, Burgundians and Goths in the fifth century took possession of the fertile lands and comfortable country houses of Roman gentlemen in France and Spain, they found the people speaking Latin. The newcomers were either converted already, or soon to be converted, to the Christian religion, of which all the services were conducted in Latin. If death occurred, the burial service was pronounced in Latin. When a child was ready for baptism, the words accompanying the ceremony were Latin. The same was true of all the seven sacraments of the Church.

Under these circumstances it is not astonishing that the Franks and Goths gave up their own speech for the language of the priests and the people, but the real compelling force was the fact that all the servants of the noble households spoke Latin. The children of the invading races learned the language of the nurse, the maid-servant and the man-servant.

The grammar and the words they learned, however, were not the grammar and the words of Cicero. They were the grammar and the words of the camp and the market-place, the so-called vulgar Latin. For example, the classical Latin for 'horse' was *equus*, but the vulgar Latin was *caballus;* from the latter came the Italian *cavallo*, Spanish *caballo*, French *cheval*, and the English word *chivalry*, which applied to knights who fought from horseback. Again, the proper Latin word for 'head' was *caput*, but the vulgar Latin was *testa*, which meant an earthenware dish or pot; from the latter came the Italian *testa* and the French *tête*, 'head'. The Latin *caput*, on the other hand, survives in French as *chef*, 'head cook', and English *chief* and *chieftain*. Similar changes took place in verbs. For example: *Ego sapio*, 'I know', became in French *Je sais*, while Cicero would have said simply *Scio*. Languages derived from Latin are called Romance languages.

There were no public schools to guide and control the formation of these new languages, because the teachers were all connected with monasteries and cathedrals, and only Latin was taught by them. The consequence was that a multitude of dialects arose in Italy, Spain, and France; even in the Alps and north of the Danube, in what is now Rumania, new descendants of the Latin language were born and survive to this day. Out of the multitude of local dialects a certain number proved to be superior, such as Portuguese, Castilian in central Spain, and Provencal, the latter deriving its name from the old Roman 'province', southern France. Around Paris still another dialect was spoken. This in turn differed from the French of Normandy, which was brought to England by William the Conqueror in 1066.

The birth of these new languages was due to the fact that the races had settled down to permanent abodes after centuries of wandering. In countries outside the pale of the ancient Roman Empire the older tongues began to be

reduced to writing. It is an unmistakable sign of the ripening of the culture of the Middle Ages that this was taking place. In Scandinavian countries the Norwegian, Danish and Swedish tongues began to be written in Latin characters. In the Netherlands, that is, Holland, and part of Belgium, the speech was Low German. This name distinguished it from High German, more widely spoken, though in Germany there was, and always has been, a multitude of dialects. East of Germany arose Polish and Russian, and in Bohemia the tongue of the Czechs. In Hungary the Magyar language prevailed, which belongs to an Asiatic group called Turanian, but the Magyars were far from their kindred. The Bulgarians abandoned their own language for Slavic, and dialects of the same tongue were spoken in lands around the head of the Adriatic.

In the south of Italy the Greek language still lingered, and elsewhere every town and every district had its own dialect of Italian, but foremost of all in beauty was that of Florence, which is called Tuscan. It was the famous poet Dante who made this form of Italian a rival of Latin as a literary language. He was a learned man and wrote works in Latin, but when he wrote from the heart his thoughts and feelings found utterance in his mother-tongue. With his *Divine Comedy* the ripeness of the religious culture of the Middle Ages arrived, and the literature of modern Italy was founded. In respect of content his *Divine Comedy* is learned and religious, and the use of Italian instead of Latin for serious themes was at that time a revolution. Before Dante's death a successor had been born in the person of Petrarch, who ransacked old libraries for neglected manuscripts of the ancient Latin writers, but wrote matchless sonnets in Italian. Contemporary with him was Boccaccio, the author of a famous collection of tales called the *Decameron*. They were supposed to have been told by a company of ladies and gentlemen who retreated to the country to be safe from the plague that was

raging. All three of these writers dealt much with the topic of romantic love, a new note in literature.

Quite different in character from these learned poets of Italy, and earlier in point of time, was a class of professional entertainers in France and Germany. In all ages human beings crave entertainment, and never less than in times of war. This natural desire was satisfied in the eleventh and twelfth centuries by strolling poets and singers, who went from castle to castle making a livelihood by performing before the noble proprietors. At times they found less affluent patrons in the villages and in the markets, where townspeople assembled for their seasonal fairs. Most famous of all were the troubadours of Provence in southern France, and the minnesingers in Germany. Such entertainers found an audience wherever chivalry flourished, and some of their compositions have come down to us. They make a mythical hero of Charles the Great in much the same way as the English wove tales of wonder about King Arthur and his Round Table. Religion was strangely mingled with romance, knightly love, and the loves of common folk.

The Church, of course, was unable to stand apart from the new developments of the time. Parish priests were beginning to deliver sermons in the dialects of the people rather than in Latin. Simple plays were being written to bring home to illiterate people the various events related in the Holy Scriptures and recorded of the saints. These were called Mystery Plays and Miracle Plays respectively. There were also Morality Plays for driving home moral teaching.

It was natural that the impulse to write books should have been displayed itself in England somewhat later than on the continent. England was situated on the circumference of medieval Europe. Its closest contact was with the Netherlands, which required the fine English wool for the busy weavers of such cities as Ghent and Bruges. It was from these districts that the art of printing was

brought across the channel by William Caxton in 1476, but long before this time a happy accident had made known the poetry and prose of Italy to a gifted Englishman. This was Geoffrey Chaucer, the Father of English Poetry (1340-1400). Born of the intelligent and enterprising merchant class, the son of a vintner, he rose by his exceptional talents to be an envoy of the king. Three times he was sent to Italy, where many were still living who had known Dante in the flesh. It is even possible that he made the acquaintance of Petrarch and Boccaccio.

It was the latter's *Decameron* that furnished the model for his best-known work, the *Canterbury Tales*. This is a collection of stories related by members of a company of pilgrims who set out from London to visit the shrine of Thomas à Becket at Canterbury. The narratives themselves are a bewitching epitome of the popular literature of the time, but far more interesting from the point of view of history is the list of travellers. It furnishes us a glimpse of the chief characters of English communities at the close of the Middle Ages. There is the knight in armour and his youthful squire, the swarthy yeoman in coat of green and armed with bow of yew, the hunting monk with jingling bells on his bridle reins, the wanton friar, the poor parson, the pardoner, who peddled signed indulgences "come from Rome all hot", and the dainty prioress, who spoke French with a lisp. There was the summoner, the sergeant-at-law, "who ever seemed busier than he was", the hollow-cheeked clerk from Oxford, the portly physician, the independent farmer, the merchant, the sailor fresh from battles in the Channel, the miller, the haberdasher, the carpenter, the weaver, the dyer and the tapestry-maker. Last of all came the honest ploughman.

Architecture

In ancient times the centre of building activity in Europe was naturally in Rome, the capital of the western world.



AN EARLY CHURCH IN THE ROMANESQUE STYLE
Interior of the church of San Apollinare Nuovo at Ravenna, built shortly after 500 A.D. and adorned with very beautiful mosaics.

It was from the west that the emperor Constantine recruited a large part of the vast army of workmen to build Constantinople, the new capital on the Bosporus. Roman builders made a specialty of the rounded arch, as exemplified in the coliseum, the aqueducts, triumphal arches, and numberless bridges. The use of baked bricks enabled the Romans to add another beautiful motive to architecture, the dome, as exemplified in the Pantheon in Rome, which still stands firm after almost two thousand years of continuous use. The dome was copied in Constantinople, and from there made its way to Damascus, to Samarkand, and even to India. It appealed strongly to the Arabs and became a standard element of Mohammedan mosques. It reappears in St. Peter's in Rome in the fifteenth century, and was copied in St. Paul's in London in the seventeenth. It was adopted in America for the Capitol in Washington and became the standard for state capitols elsewhere. It is almost a symbol of the continuity and the unity of history.

In the early Middle Ages there was little building done in stone or brick. The manor houses of the feudal barons were constructed of wood, of which there was still an abundance in the forest lands of western Europe. The industries of the sawyer and the carpenter were most important. In Italy, however, the trade of the stone-mason still flourished. The style of building that prevailed there was the Romanesque, which employed the rounded arch and occasionally the dome of ancient Rome. Continuous arches with supporting columns between them are characteristic of this style. The increasing use of large and heavy bronze bells called into being the church-tower, of which the Leaning Tower of Pisa is the most famous example. It was not intended that this should lean as it does; the deviation from the perpendicular was caused by the settling of the foundation on one side. It was fifty-five years in building, 1063 to 1118, a leisure that is also characteristic of the Middle Ages. Men built very slowly, very beautifully, and

very solidly. The most beautiful edifices in Europe to this day are medieval.

The medieval builders destroyed the pagan temples of Rome with their massive columns on the outside, and used the materials to build Christian basilicas with a double row of columns on the inside. The wide central space between the columns is called the nave, which terminates in a semi-



CATHEDRAL OF CANTERBURY

Built after the Norman conquest (see page 377) on the site of Augustine's missionary activities of the 7th century. Part of the building was reconstructed, after a fire, in 1164.

circular apse where the altar stands. Often there are stalls around the apse for the choir; these stalls afforded the wood-carver an opportunity to display his skill. The curved walls of the apse are usually decorated with mosaics in coloured stone or glass, or with paintings, depicting Christ, St. Peter and St. Paul, and the other Apostles. In front of the altar the church was extended at the sides to form the transept, giving to the whole the form of a cross.

in large churches there are often chapels along the sides, which are entered from side-aisles between the columns and the walls.

It seems to have been the knowledge gained in foreign lands during the Crusades that inspired the builders of France and England to turn from the use of wood to stone in their churches and dwellings. At any rate, it was during the eleventh and twelfth centuries that the Romanesque style was introduced to the north. It was not destined to prevail long, however, because something far more beautiful was gradually devised to take its place. This was the Gothic, a name which in this use means 'barbaric'. It arose in France in the twelfth century and became popular in England and elsewhere. Even in Milan it was adopted, and also in Toledo, but in general it belongs north of the Alps.

The Gothic church is the most exquisite symbol of medieval Christianity. Its pointed arches, its turrets and its towers all seem to tempt heavenward the gaze and the imagination of the beholder. The centre of vision seems at one moment to lie in the graceful curves and carvings of the doorway, then in the rose window above, and finally in the towers. Compared to this wonderful façade, the cold, geometric beauty of a Greek temple offers little to the emotions. It seems as if the Greek artist feared to allow himself a free expression of his feelings, while the Gothic builder was reaching out for every device of art to embody in a hard and forbidding material the most elusive aspirations. It was perhaps the frequent use of grotesque ornaments, dwarfs, apes, dragons, and other monstrous things, that prompted men to call the style barbaric. There is something of the lore of the Northman about it, but the Christian elements predominate. Niches with fascinating little canopies of stone above them are left for figures of the Apostles, of saints, and of brave knights who fought for the cross in Palestine. To create these myriad beauties

of the cathedrals of Amiens, Chartres, Paris, Rheims, or of Westminster Abbey required the patient labour of many men for many years. The architects are rarely known by name. Sometimes a whole generation passed away before the work was completed. It was a nameless and unselfish labour to the glory of God.



GOTHIC STATUES
On the Cathedral of Strasbourg.

The interior of the Gothic church is no less beautiful than the outside. As the visitor makes his entrance, the glittering altar, the stalls of the choir-gallery, and the paintings above are descried at the end of a long avenue of massive pillars, which merge above in the vaulted roof. The ground-plan is the same as in the Romanesque; the nave

and the transept forming a cross was too sacred a motive to be lightly abandoned. The lofty pulpit, often of carved wood, will be at the right, attached to one of the pillars. What bestows a unique charm upon the interior, however, as contrasted with other styles, is the rich light that beams upon everything from the windows of stained glass. The figures of saints mean less than they did in the twelfth century, perhaps, but the radiance that streams downward upon the beholder seems to transport him to another world. The manifold charm of the structure expels from the memory all recollections of the strife, the sordidness and the squalour of the Middle Ages. It preserves only its glory.

Byzantine Art

While the countries of western Europe were slowly creating order out of chaos, the Eastern Roman Empire continued to preserve after a fashion the civilization of an earlier age. Its culture is called Byzantine for the excellent reason that to form an adjective from the long name Constantinople is impossible. Byzantium was the name of the Greek city that once had occupied the same site. Constantinople was the largest city of Europe during the Middle Ages, falling little short of a million inhabitants. It was situated at the cross-roads of land-ways and water-ways. The land route from France and Germany down the Danube valley passed through it to Asia Minor and the Holy Land. Ships of Italian merchants bound for the Crimea and Trebizond, where the caravan routes terminated, stopped perforce at its harbour. The Emperor lived off the tolls that he collected.

Constantinople inherited from Rome the use of burnt bricks and the dome. Neither the material nor the style tended to create beauty in the external appearance, but rather a sense of massiveness and weight. The church of St. Sophia was as a bushel concealing a light. All the decoration was lavished upon the interior. The concave

ceilings of the domed roofs were adorned with brilliant mosaics, made of cubes of glass in rich shades of blue, bronze, purple and red. Mosaics above the altars were resplendent with colour, and in general were far more remarkable for this than for beauty of drawing. Halos of real gold glittered above the heads of saints, and in general



JUSTINIAN AND HIS COURT

A mosaic from the church of San Vitale at Ravenna, showing the Emperor accompanied by officers of his court and army (on the left) and by the bishop of Ravenna (Maximian) and his clergy (on the right). Justinian was present at the dedication of the church. (On Justinian see pages 231-232, 254-255.)

everything that could be gilded received its coating of gold leaf. This magnificence was illuminated by vast numbers of hanging lamps. Travellers from the West to-day usually feel that Greek churches are over-decorated. According to oriental standards they are not.

This love of gilding, like the passion for precious stones, is characteristic of the East. The Byzantine workmen

excelled in other lines that were little practised in Italy, France, or Germany. While the medieval German excelled in carving choir stalls, pulpits or altar pieces in oak wood, the Byzantine preferred to do smaller objects in ivory, such as crucifixes, madonnas, pyxes, jewel-boxes, screens



SAINT SOPHIA AT CONSTANTINOPLE

Built by the Emperor Justinian in the 6th century as the Catholic cathedral of his capital, it has been from that day to this the finest architectural expression of Byzantine civilization. Compare it with the Pantheon, page 169.

or tablets. While the Flemish weaver excelled in making strong, warm fabrics of wool, the Byzantine worked in brightly-coloured silks combined with fine threads of gold. The city was famous also for its gem-cutters, its silversmiths, its goldsmiths, and its bronze-workers.

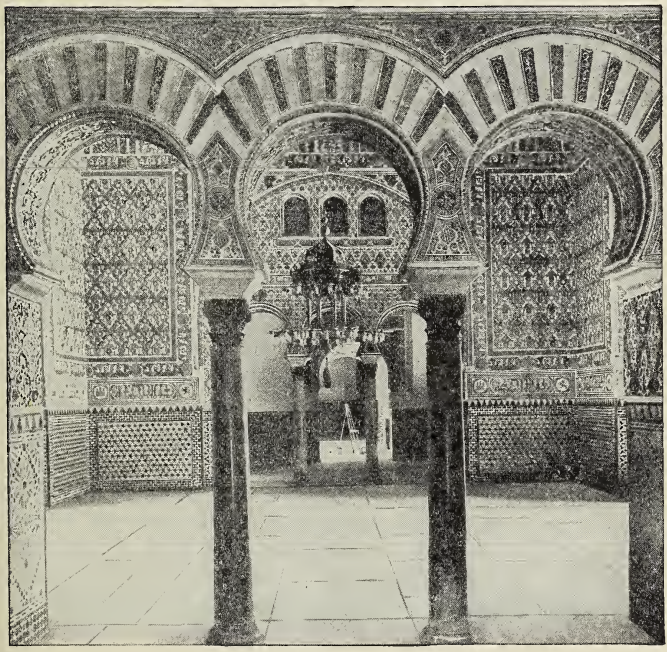
Art of the Arabs

Hardly inferior to Constantinople in commercial importance was Damascus. It stands on the margin of that historic crescent of fertile land which forms the northern border of the Arabian Desert. Just as all the trade of the ports on the Black Sea flowed through Constantinople, so all the trade of the ports of Syria and Palestine flowed through Damascus. It was the point of outfitting for the caravans that fared back and forth between the West and Persia, India and China. Its warehouses were filled with the merchandise of many lands, silks, muslins, rubies, pearls, drugs, spices and incense. It could hardly fail to become a centre of art and architecture.

The Moslems borrowed from the Greeks and Romans the use of the dome, which became standard for the mosques from Africa to India. Corresponding to the bell-towers of western Europe they developed the minarets, tall, slender, pointed towers with a small balcony above, from which the call to prayer is uttered five times every day to all faithful Mohammedans. Specimens of these minarets may be seen at the four corners of St. Sophia in Constantinople, erected after the capture of the city by the Ottoman Turks in 1453. Equally famous examples may be seen at the corners of the royal tomb known as the Taj Mahal in India, although this was not erected until the seventeenth century. This exquisite monument, as beautiful on the exterior as within, exhibits an oriental development of the dome, which is said to have had its origin in Damascus. The domes, for it has more than one, are not true hemispheres, but display an expanded diameter above the base, and then retreat in a graceful curve to a point at the top. Even the small minarets are surmounted by diminutive domes. It is said that this style reached India by way of Samarkand, where the great conqueror Tamerlane reproduced a specimen which his own soldiers had destroyed in Damascus.

No small part of the charm of the art and architecture

of the Arabs is due to the fact that their religion forbade the use of images. No living creature is represented in their mosques or palaces. This limitation stimulated the invention of graceful curving lines and lace-like patterns,



MOSLEM DECORATION
The Hall of Ambassadors in the Alcazar at Seville, Spain

which from their origin, are called arabesques. Magnificent specimens have been preserved in Spain, for example, in the Hall of the Ambassadors in the Alcazar. Some of them resemble rug patterns executed in stone. Slender columns also belong to the Arab architecture, and arches

that more nearly approach a circle than in the Romanesque of Italy.

While the Gothic churches were dimly illuminated by sunbeams streaming through stained glass, the mosques of the Arabs depended for light upon a multitude of oil lamps, which were themselves works of art. The manufacture of glass was native to Syria, and it attained a great perfection there during the Middle Ages, especially in the service of religion. The secret of producing a rich bronze colour was somehow worked out, perhaps in imitation of metal, but at any rate the glass lamps created for the mosques are among the most beautiful works of their kind. Upon these also the use of fine, gracefully curving and intersecting lines was brought to perfection, and the curves of the bowls themselves are beyond criticism. It may be added that specimens of Syrian vases of this age have been found in Chinese tombs.

CHAPTER XXXII

EDUCATION AND LEARNING

Pagan Schools replaced by Church Schools—Learned Men of the Early Church—Courses of Study—Roman, Canon and Common Law—Origin of the Great Universities in Europe—Student Life in the Middle Ages—Itinerant Scholars—The Rivalry of Reason and Religion—The Work of St. Thomas Aquinas.

INDUSTRY, SCIENCE AND INVENTION.—Steel Armour, Stirrups and Saddle—Development of Archery—The Gradual Introduction of Firearms—The Use of the Mariner's Compass—Chemistry probably a Gift of China—Chemical Arts in the Middle Ages—Introduction of the Silk Industry—Use of Papyrus and Parchment—The Manufacture of Paper—The Beginnings of Printing in Europe—Development of Printing in China—The Golden Age of the Handicrafts—Lack of Scientific Curiosity—Shrinkage of Medical Knowledge—Scientific Dreams of Roger Bacon—Growth of Mathematical Knowledge.

It has already been told how the Middle Ages terminated in a harvest of popular literature in Italy, Spain, France, Germany and England. This harvest would never have been garnered if the seed and the seed-bed had not been prepared long before. The truth is that Europe was never without books and education, not even during the centuries when Goths and Vandals were prowling about from one fertile province to another. The invaders may have dispersed the inhabitants of the neat checker-board towns where the sons of Roman soldiers, shop-keepers and farmers went to school, but they did not utterly destroy the means of education. The churchmen were already prepared to grasp the torch of knowledge as it fell from the hands of the vanishing pagan teachers.

The Church had abundant warning of the crash of empires, and was excellently prepared to take up its new burdens. Almost all the great scholars of the later days of Rome were Christians, and almost all contributed handsomely to the work of transmuting the wisdom of the Greek and Roman philosophers into forms that would be suitable for a Christian time. St. Ambrose, Bishop of Milan, at the

close of the fourth century wrote a manual *On the Duties of Ministers,* but he was not unaware that Cicero had written what we might entitle *On the Duties of a Gentleman.* St. Jerome of the same generation loved his Cicero so dearly that he feared it might be an offence to God, but he translated the Holy Scriptures into a kind of vulgar Latin, so that the people might read it with profit and understanding. Boethius, a Roman consul of the early sixth century, when most of the barbarian kingdoms were already established, wrote in prison his *Consolation of Philosophy,* in which he demonstrates the emptiness of the pleasures of wealth, honour, kingship, fame, noble birth, and self-indulgence; he wrote in the language of Cicero, but the reasoning is that of the Christian. He was a sort of Christian Cicero.

Neither did the new monastery schools lack a course of study. The learned men of the very period that we call the Dark Ages had it all in readiness, and as early as the fifth century a certain Martianus Capella of Africa, at a time when the Vandals were already in Spain, wrote an amusing allegory in which the god Apollo makes a wedding gift of seven servants to his bride, Miss Learning. These seven servants are no others than the seven Liberal Arts of the medieval curriculum, Music, Arithmetic, Geometry and Astronomy, which form the *quadrivium,* or group of four, and Grammar, Rhetoric and Dialectic, which form the *trivium,* or group of three. In a graver tone the famous Cassiodorus, one of the ministers of the Ostrogothic king Theodoric, composed his *Outlines of Study,* which covered the same ground. In Spain another famous scholar named Isidore proposed a like programme. The knowledge of the work of these men cause the Dark Ages to seem a little less dark.

So far from being hostile to learning, some of the barbarians seemed to realize the value of having things written down. The various tribes possessed laws of their own, like the *mos maiorum,* 'custom of the ancestors', of the

early Romans, and more than one chief caused these to be put in book form. Such was Clovis, king of the Franks, who preserved the so-called Salic Law of his people. Most of the German kings, as a matter of fact, had lawyers at their sides, and this was true hardly less of the bishops. In England the Common Law came into being, being so



The Monastery of Monte Cassino, in Southern Italy
Founded by Benedict in 520 A.D.

called because it applied to all classes of people everywhere; it was in rivalry with Canon Law, which prevailed only in church courts, and with Feudal Law, which applied only to those under the rule of a feudal landlord (pages 253-254). English Common Law was like the laws of the German tribes; in each case a decision would be made by the judge

upon general principles of right and equity, and, once rendered, this decision governed like cases; such laws are said to be judge-made. It may be added that English Common Law still prevails, not only in all countries of the British Commonwealth of Nations, except India, but also in the United States of North America. Roman Law, on the other hand, survives in South America.

The profession of law became more and more important as time went on. Few traits are more characteristic of the Middle Ages than the desire to have all contracts in writing. The fact that the great majority of the people were unable to read and write rendered clerical skill all the more important for the few. Attached to all the palaces of kings and bishops were staffs of men trained to draw up all sorts of legal documents, laws, judgments of courts, deeds of land, charters for towns, and treaties between kings. At first there were no law schools in western Europe. Young men begged the privilege of listening to eminent lawyers delivering their opinions. Out of this practice arose the first universities. The students in Bologna, for example, became so numerous that regular lectures were delivered for their benefit. They met together, formed an organization for self-government, and secured a charter from the Pope. This was about the year 1100. The word 'university' there meant 'a union of all students'.

University life had its beginnings in Italy, because cities such as Venice were in close contact with Constantinople, where law schools and learning had persisted since ancient times. The movement spread northward to France and England. First and foremost in the north was the University of Paris, but it was the teachers there, and not the students, who drew together and formed an organization. The University of Paris was an outgrowth of a cathedral school. In the twelfth century a multitude of students gathered there from different countries to hear the lectures of Peter Abelard. At one time their total number is said

to have been 50,000. Many of them were very poor, and were forced to endure extreme hardships. They slept upon straw, and a street where they lodged in large numbers is still called Rue de Paille (Straw Street). In Oxford and Cambridge groups of students organized themselves into colleges; the word college originally meant almost the same as 'fraternity', but the purpose was more serious. Universities had their own courts and gaols, and the custom of wearing cap and gown was adopted to distinguish students from the people of the town; if a student was guilty of misconduct in the streets he was recognized by his dress and the offence reported to the university authorities.

Medieval schooling was for males only. The first necessity was a knowledge of Latin, which was acquired in a grammar school attached to a monastery, cathedral or palace. This enabled a student to understand lectures in any university, because they were all delivered in that language. Many went to Paris, Bologna, or some other centre of learning. Some of them found a little adventure in tramping from city to city. Food and lodging could always be obtained at a monastery, but not a few begged their way, or went about from street to street singing popular songs in the hope of collecting a few pennies from the passers-by. It was not an uncommon thing for these itinerant scholars to learn several languages during their wanderings, and so to add something to the sum of culture in their own communities when they returned. The studies of law and theology drew the largest followings, but not a few sought a knowledge of medicine in foreign parts. In the eleventh century the most famous school of medicine was flourishing at Salerno, a town south of Naples.

The first course of study for all classes consisted in the old Seven Liberal Arts (page 362) inherited from Cicero's time. The completion of this requirement entitled the candidate to the degree of Bachelor of Arts. He might prepare himself for teaching by proceeding to the degree of

Master of Arts, but many turned to the professional schools of Theology, Philosophy, Law, or Medicine. In all these studies, except medicine, a time of ripening arrived in the thirteenth century, and famous teachers abounded. It was a great question in those days whether reason, represented by the Greek philosopher Aristotle, could be reconciled with religion, represented by the Bible and the writings of learned churchmen. A famous Arab philosopher of Spain, called Averroes, believed that Aristotle was to be preferred to the Bible, and many Christians followed him. The orthodox view was triumphantly defended by Thomas Aquinas (d. 1274), who summed up in a famous book the theological thought of the Middle Ages.

This work, entitled *Summa Theologiae,* 'Sum-Total of Theology', embodies the system known as Scholasticism. This consists in stating a proposition clearly and then removing all objections to it by means of argument. Reason and logic are thus summoned to the aid of the faith. Men trained in the method surpass all others in acuteness of reasoning. Thomas Aquinas ranks near the top among the great men of thought. He summed up the finest learning of the Middle Ages just as Aristotle summed up the learning of ancient Greece, and Cicero that of Rome. At the same time it must be remembered that no epoch of thought can be summed up before it has reached the stage of maturity. The appearance of such a monument of the medieval mind was a sure sign that the epoch was drawing to a close, although men knew it not. Equally unrecognized were the beginnings of new movements, still toiling in the gloom, the signs of the birth of modern Europe.

Industry, Science and Invention

It has already been mentioned that the later Middle Ages were a time of ripening in government, learning, art and architecture. It has been told how new languages came into being, and how new literature were created in these new

languages, Italian, Spanish, French, German, English and Scandinavian. Mention has also been made of the Gothic architecture, which beautified the new cities of northern Italy, Spain, France, Germany and England. It remains to speak of science and invention.

In the domain of war there was a slow development of body armour. The German tribes were not easily converted to the use of it. They carried only shields, spears, swords, and battle-axes, which they hurled at the enemy. The first body armour was a short-sleeved coat of chain-mail. To this was added a cap of the same make with a protection for the neck. King Richard the Lion-Heart of England (1189-1199) wore a full suit of chain-mail and a pot-helmet which completely covered the head. It was these pot-helmets, concealing the face, that made devices on the shield necessary. For example, Richard I had three golden lions on a red background, which everyone knew for his coat-of-arms. They are still used as the arms of England. In the thirteenth century the custom of strapping steel plates over the shins and joints came into vogue; this was the beginning of plate armour; it was first used over the chain-mail, and only in the fourteenth century began to be used separately.

The German tribes were also slowly converted to the use of the horse. They preferred to fight on foot, and it was as foot soldiers that the Franks repulsed the dashing mounted lancers of the Moors at Tours in 732. Gradually, however, they adopted the saddle and stirrups as used by the Huns. They still carried large shields and very little defensive armour. As the use of chain-mail and helmets increased they had all the more need of strong horses, and began to breed particular types that combined high spirit with speed and weight. After knighthood began to dwindle, these heavier horses became available for farms. Thus the best plough-horses are a gift of the profession of arms to the practice of agriculture.

In the history of war it is a curious fact that new weapons are only slowly perfected to overcome the advantage of other weapons. The mounted knight was supreme in Europe during the middle feudal period. Little use was made of infantry. To strengthen this arm of the service the



A Siege of a French Town during the Hundred Years' War
From a 15th-century manuscript of the *Chronicles of Froissart.*

use of the long-bow gradually came into favour. At the battle of Crécy in 1360 the finest chivalry of France was repulsed by the English archers, equipped with the yew bow, longer than the man himself. In the same battle there was a force of crossbowmen from Genoa in the service of the French king. Even crossbows were not a new

invention, because the Chinese possessed even repeating crossbows. Whether the idea came from them is uncertain, but it is more than probable.

The use of gunpowder began as early as the thirteenth century. It was used at the battle of Crécy in 1360, but only to frighten horses. Firearms were only slowly devised and adopted. For a long time they were very inferior to bows and arrows, because of the time required for reloading. The ultimate advantage lay largely in the fact that less skill was needed in handling them. An archer required intelligence, long training and constant practice. When the increasing revenues of kings enabled them to keep armies in their pay, it proved easier and quicker to train them to the use of firearms. The introduction of brass cannon, however, was at first more important. They could be employed against the walls of feudal castles, and when the castles ceased to be safe fortresses, the Middle Ages began to pass. Cannon also possessed the advantage that they could be employed on ships. The Spanish Armada that was sent against England in 1588 carried 2,500 guns of this class.

It is not strictly correct to speak of the invention of gunpowder. The Chinese were acquainted with it long before its use in Europe. How the knowledge of it reached Europe is uncertain, but it might have come either by the caravan routes or by way of the sea through the Arab traders. The same is true of the compass, which is mentioned in Chinese literature as early as 1115 B.C. They called it the "south-pointing needle" and employed it to discover suitable locations for graves, a practice that belongs to a kind of magic called geomancy. It was no doubt the merchants from India and Arabia who first perceived its usefulness for navigators. When the first European, Vasco da Gama, sailed to India in 1498, he was guided from the coast of Africa by an Arab pilot who possessed a good sea-map and nautical instruments. The use of such aids to navigation reached mariners of all races

in the East, and became universal in Europe without the knowledge of bookish people. It is only one of many unrecorded events of the Middle Ages.

To China we must look, in all probability, for the beginnings of chemistry also. In the Middle Ages in Europe it was called "alchemy", a word of Arabic origin.



Culver Service

AN ALCHEMIST AT WORK

Associated with it were two curious beliefs: first, that the baser metals could be transmuted into gold, if only the secret could be found; second, that a medicine might be discovered or compounded which would prolong human life even to immortality, the so-called Elixir of Life. These two quests, it is now known, were pursued by Chinese researchers as early as the third century before Christ, when the Han Dynasty was being founded. It was among the Taoists that such ideas were born. Taoism, at first a sort of religion or way of life, degenerated into magic, but

even the practice of magic requires skill and knowledge along with trickery. The idea that baser substances could be transformed into gold seems to have arisen from the discovery that cinnabar, a red substance, yielded quicksilver.

In Europe the practice of alchemy was associated with the devil, but the alchemists, in spite of persecution and suspicion, added not a little to useful knowledge. They became expert in extracting essences from various spices and plants, and they increased the use of dyes, both for fabrics and for glass. The stained glass of medieval church windows is unequalled for richness of colouring. In Syria the glass-ware of Arab manufacture possessed wonderful beauty, especially in bronze tints. The coloured tiles of Arab buildings in Spain still awaken the admiration of the beholder. The dyeing of fabrics became almost a fine art in Italy, and some kinds of woollen cloth were shipped there from England to receive their final treatment. In Syria and Mesopotamia the process of dyeing silk cloth and thread was almost entirely in the hands of the Jews. In Jerusalem itself they possessed an absolute monopoly.

The cultivation of the silk-worm was undoubtedly one of the many gifts of China to the western world. Silk was long believed to grow on trees, just as cotton (often called "tree-wool") grows on plants, but at last, in the year 551, some silk-cocoons were smuggled out of China to Constantinople in a hollow cane by two monks. Thus the industry of growing silk was introduced to Asia Minor and Palestine, but it subsequently proved to be more successful on a large scale in Persia.

More important than silk was the gift of paper. The ancient Mediterranean countries had long used papyrus, a coarse paper made by laying slices of the papyrus reed transversely upon one another, pounding, and drying. This became expensive in the first century A.D. because of export duties imposed by Egyptian kings, and after the

Arab conquest of Egypt the supply was cut off completely. Its place was taken by parchment, made of the skins of kids and lambs, very durable but no more suitable than papyrus for printing purposes.

True paper was made in China as early as the second century of the Christian era, and the material was silk, but it was a long time before knowledge of the process reached the West. In 751 A.D. the Chinese made an unsuccessful attack upon the Moslems in Samarkand, and two paper-makers were found among the captured soldiers. In those days it was customary to spare all skilled workers among captives, and these Chinese were set to work at their trade. From them the art of making paper spread among the Arabs and reached their cities in Spain. The Moors are said to have made a rather poor quality of paper, though their leather book-covers were superbly beautiful. The Italians did not improve the binding but they did improve the paper, and in the thirteenth century had the industry well under way. By the fourteenth century it was flourishing in German cities. The material used was linen.

This introduction of paper coincided with the revival of learning that is known as the Renaissance. Feudalism, serfdom and chivalry were waning and new institutions were growing up in their place. The minds of men were awakening to a new liberty of thought and a fresh desire for knowledge. Students were thronging the universities of Bologna, Paris and Oxford. The time had come for the industry of printing. The availability of paper made this feasible. Lourens Coster of Haarlem in Holland began to print from movable type as early as 1446, and John Gutenberg was printing Indulgences and Bibles at Mainz in 1454. Unlike the use of gunpowder, the printing industry spread with rapidity. It was established in Rome in 1466, and in England by Caxton in 1477.

It is hardly correct to speak of the invention of printing. The art was already well developed when first

known to European history. In China it was centuries older. A Buddhist book, the *Diamond Sutra*, appeared there in the ninth century, but printing with lamp-black ink from engraved blocks of wood had been practised three centuries earlier. The Chinese classics were printed in the tenth century, as also playing-cards and paper money. The transition from block printing to the use of moveable type took place in the eleventh century. Wooden types were replaced by metal in Korea about the year 1390. That the art reached Europe from China is difficult to prove, but equally hard to disbelieve. Unfortunately, few travellers by land or sea in the Middle Ages cared to write books, but would not the mere report that men in that far country were printing from movable type be sufficient to stimulate the imagination of an intelligent Dutch workman with a mechanical turn of mind and a shrewd business instinct? However this question be answered, the stubborn fact remains that the industry appeared in Europe full grown, like Eve out of Adam's side, or Athena from the helmet of Zeus.

The Middle Ages were far more favourable to the growth of industry than of science. It was the golden era of the handicraftsmen, printers, weavers, dyers, goldsmiths, silversmiths, enamellers, wood-carvers, stone-cutters, stone-masons, glass-workers, ivory-workers, leather-workers, armour-makers, and small-shop artisans in general. They filled the whole world from the Atlantic to the China Sea with things of beauty, which in their variety far surpass the much praised productions of ancient Greece. The most beautiful things in the world are medieval in origin.

If the skill of the hand was developed to its highest perfection, the training of the mind was singularly restricted. Religion usurped the imaginations of men, so far as they were not prepossessed by war and the quest of gain. It was not an age of scientific curiosity. The far-flung trade of the busy cities added little to the knowledge of

geography. It was a common belief that the earth resembled in shape a capital T with Europe on the left, China on the right, and India and Arabia below. Jerusalem was thought to occupy the centre of the universe. Africa was thought to extend far eastward towards India. Arab sea-captains knew better, but they did not write books, and the scholars, if they consulted any other book than the Bible, had resort to the writings of ancient Greek authors. For a long time Marco Polo's account of his journey to China proved of little interest except to romancers.

In the later Roman Empire the practice of medicine had reached a high state of perfection, including some knowledge of anesthetics. Its kit of surgical tools was admirable, and its supply of written manuals for physicians equally complete. By far the greater part of this knowledge perished in Europe and was never entirely regained. Part of it was recovered through Arabic translations made in Bagdad in the ninth century. Copies of these Arabic versions were brought to Spain, and became known to Europe again at centres such as Cordova. In the eleventh century, and later, a school of medicine flourished at Salerno, south of Naples, but its curriculum was woefully thin. The physician in general was little better than a quack, and remedies were believed to be less effectual than a rigmarole of words pronounced over the patient. Bloodletting, or cupping, was employed for many kinds of maladies, even down to the nineteenth century. The science of modern medicine is of very recent growth.

In the thirteenth century a Franciscan brother of Oxford, Roger Bacon, dreamed and wrote of a coming age of scientific research, of motor cars and aeroplanes:

> Machines for navigating are possible without rowers, so that great ships suited to river or ocean, guided by one man, may be borne with greater speed than if they be full of men. Likewise, cars may be made so that without a draught animal they may be moved with incalculable speed, as we deem the scythed chariots to have been with which antiquity fought. And flying machines

> are possible, so that a man may sit in the middle turning some device by which artificial wings may beat the air in the manner of a flying bird.

He exhorted men to turn from the use of books to the use of the eyes and to experiment, but he was regarded as a dangerous madman. He was spied upon and imprisoned. He was born at least two centuries too early. Men were going to books for knowledge, not to nature. There never was a more bookish age, although there were few books. It was the multiplication of books by the art of printing that freed the human race from the tyranny of books.

The Arabs did a great service to the study of mathematics. The ancient Roman numerals, I, II, III, IV, *etc.*, were very inconvenient for calculations, and the letters of the alphabet used with numerical values by the Greeks and eastern peoples were even more so. It was the Arabs who developed the decimal system expressed by the nine numerals, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 0. The name of zero, *cipher*, is also Arabic. These ten signs made possible our system of adding, subtracting and multiplying. It was in the twelfth century that Christian writers first explained these processes, but they were probably understood by business men long before. The statement is often made that these signs had their origin in India, but this is also denied. There is no doubt, however, that we owe the name and the study of algebra to the Arabs. Arabic works on geometry were also translated into Latin. At Madrid in a museum is an astrolabe dating from 1067, an instrument for determining the altitude of the sun and stars, which was just as necessary to the mariner as the compass. To all this mathematical knowledge there was no opposition in the Middle Ages, because it was useful and offended no man's religious beliefs.

CHAPTER XXXIII

GROWTH OF NATIONAL STATES

The New Pattern of Life—Modern Nations Recognizable in 1500—Rise of the Bourgeoisie or Middle Classes.

England.—Reforms of William the Conqueror—Reforms of Henry II—The Signing of Magna Carta, 1215—The Beginnings of Parliamentary Government—Obstacles to England's Growth.

France.—Development of the French Monarchy—Progress Under Philip the Fair.

Other National States.—Spain United in 1469—Kingdoms of Hungary and Poland—Russia a Swedish Kingdom.

The Holy Roman Empire.—Absurdity of the Holy Roman Empire—The Emperor, Electors and Diet—Rivalries of Emperors and Popes—Consequences of Disunion—Europe in 1500.

It has been shown in a previous chapter how the orderly pattern of life that prevailed in western Europe under the Roman Empire was blotted out by the migrations of the German races. It has also been shown how a new pattern of life came gradually into being, new kingdoms, new religions, new cities, new laws, new languages, new schools, new universities, and new architecture. It remains to show how the government of the several parts was revamped in harmony with the new order.

By the eleventh century the migrations of the races in Europe had ceased, and all had adopted some form of Christianity. The feudal system was then in its prime. There were kings, but they were little stronger than the dukes, counts, barons, bishops and abbots, who ruled over their estates and their serfs. By the close of the Middle Ages the kings had become stronger, and the nations of Europe as we know them to-day had become recognizable. A map of Europe in the year 1500 resembles very much a map of Europe at the present time.

The outstanding feature of these last three centuries of the Middle Ages is the rise of national states in Europe, each with a single government and a single capital city. A

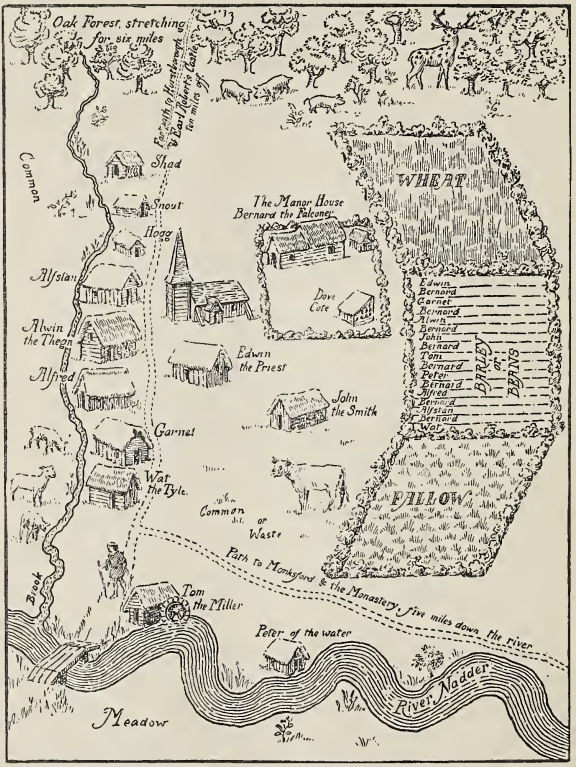
most vital factor in this change was the growth of trade and industry. For example, the development of the wool trade in England gave to the English kings a source of income quite independent of the land. There was, of course, a tax on all wool exported as well as duties on all wines and other products imported. In all countries, as the new cities became prosperous, a new class of citizens came to the fore, the burgesses, burghers, or *bourgeoisie*, as they were called. This class wished for peace, and looked to the kings as their best protectors. They desired good and uniform coinage, which the kings could best issue. The support of this class was re-enforced by the favour of the poor people on the land, that is, the peasants, who were no longer so dependent upon the landlords as in the Dark Ages.

England

In the long run it was a great blessing to England to be conquered by William of Normandy in 1066. William was an enlightened prince and, as a stranger, could exact an obedience that no Saxon king could ever demand. In 1086 he completed an accurate census of all the wealth of the country, which was embodied in *Domesday Book*. He required all landowners to take the "Oath of Salisbury", whereby they solemnly promised to be faithful to his own person rather than to their own feudal landlords. It was with such reservations that the estates of the conquered Saxons were divided among his Norman followers. Among the latter the officers of the king were always present; William appointed in each county a sheriff (shire-reeve), and a coroner to investigate sudden deaths. Thus there was a certain amount of royal justice as well as feudal justice.

Succeeding kings were strong and weak by turn, and the same was true of the barons and the churchmen. Henry II (1154-1189) was strong, but so also was Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury. Henry ordered four of his knights to murder Becket in his own cathedral. This

crime recoiled upon him with damaging force. The people were shocked, and began to revere the dead man as a martyr and a saint. Pilgrimages were made regularly to his tomb.



BIRD'S EYE VIEW OF AN ENGLISH MANOR

It was manifest that England was not ready for opposition to the Church, and least of all by such atrocious methods. Henry's vigour in other directions bore permanent fruit. He instituted the Grand Jury of twelve men in each shire

to report all crimes to the sheriff, and he appointed judges to travel on circuit and hold trials at the county-seats. This practice still prevails in all Anglo-Saxon countries, including the United States.

In 1215 the English people showed themselves unmistakably a nation, when they forced King John (1199-1216) to sign a solemn contract to respect the rights of all, whether nobles, clergy, merchants or farmers. This was the famous Magna Carta. The king was not to rob his vassal nor the vassal his man; no farmer was to be deprived of the means of livelihood, that is, his farm wagon and implements; no merchant was to have his goods taken from him, nor prevented from going from town to town in the pursuit of his business; the townspeople were guaranteed the right to manage their affairs according to their stated privileges. No tax was to be levied without the consent of the Great Council of the Nation, but the king might exact the usual payments when the eldest prince became a knight, when the eldest princess became a bride, or when the need of ransom money arose through the capture of the king by his enemies. Furthermore, no citizen was to be arrested, imprisoned or deprived of his property without trial within a reasonable time before a jury of his peers or equals.

The importance of this last pledge may be realized when it is recalled that for five centuries after this time the king of France could keep any man in prison without accusing him of any crime or bringing him to trial. England laid the foundations of popular government at an earlier date than the continental nations, and kept steadily in advance of them in its development. The seeds of parliamentary government were present in the customs of all the Germanic races, whose kings were often chosen by the chiefs in assembly, but it was only in England that this institution was consistently developed. The beginning was made by Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, who fought Henry III, took him prisoner, and called together a body consisting of

two knights from each shire and two citizens of each city and borough, in addition to the usual clergy and nobility. This was the first parliament, 1265. The first parliament summoned by the king was assembled by Edward I in 1295, the so-called Model Parliament. It became usual for parliament to claim control of taxation and the royal succession. Members were to be immune from arrest by officers of the king, while any royal official might, on the other hand, be impeached and tried by parliament. Parliament was at first a court, styled the High Court of Parliament. His Majesty the King occupied the throne, and before him the knights and burghers, that is, the Commons, were silent. If their opinion was desired they met secretly in another room and came to a joint decision. A servant of the King was appointed to speak for them, that is, the Speaker. Thus in the course of time the House of Commons arose as distinct from the House of Lords.

These changes signified progress towards genuine self-government by the British people, but certain obstacles long stood in the way, which were distinctly medieval. William the Conqueror was not only king of England; he was also Duke of Normandy, and consequently a vassal of the king of France. Henry II inherited these two dominions from his mother, became Count of Anjou by inheritance from his father, and acquired Aquitaine by marriage. These French possessions kept the kings of England embroiled in wars across the channel. Another distraction was the claim of Edward I to the crown of Scotland. This aspiration was terminated by the battle of Bannockburn, 1314. Nevertheless, the greatness of England was not destined to reach its peak until Scotland was united to it in 1707. Within half a century after this date the overseas empire of Britain was acquired.

Scotland was neither large nor rich enough to play a strong part as a national state, although it enjoyed this status from 1314 until 1603, when its king, James VI, be-

came James I of England. It came into its own when its manhood was added to that of England. Scotsmen proved to be unsurpassed as colonizers in the New World.

France

France kept pace with England in its development as a national state with a single language and a single capital. The original Frankish kingdom was German, of course, and its capital was Verdun, near the German border. Part of the kingdom fell to the share of Hugh Capet in 987, and Paris then began its career as a capital. The descendants of this man were kings for centuries, but the dukes, counts, bishops and abbots were almost equally powerful for a long time. The king was even obliged to do homage for lands acquired from other feudal lords. Philip Augustus (1180-1223) was one of the first to increase the royal power. He put down robbery and appointed officials of his own to collect taxes and to hold court. It is a sign of the times that he was able to maintain a standing army paid by himself, which was quite a different thing from a feudal levy assembled for a limited time. Louis IX, who became Saint Louis, was a crusader and a friend of the poor. He struck coins that were intended to circulate in all parts, one of the great needs of the time.

Philip IV, surnamed the Fair, was renowned for his defiance of the Pope. In 1302 he called together the Estates General of France, which included the higher clergy, the nobles, and prominent representatives of the people. These were the Three Estates. They constituted a sort of parliament, and supported the king in his opposition to the Pope. The point of dispute was the claim of the latter to the right to collect taxes from church lands in France, and this claim was the more galling because the recipient was a foreigner. Philip was willing to use force and in 1305 established a new Pope of his own choosing in a new residence at Avignon in southern France. This arrangement persisted



UNIFICATION OF FRANCE



UNIFICATION OF SPAIN

for seventy years and is sometimes called the Babylonian Captivity. Philip filled his chests by confiscating the property of the Order of Knights Templars, which had been organized during the Crusades. This, too, was a sign of the times. The power of kings was increasing and the supremacy of the Church was waning.

Other National States

In the meanwhile other states were coming into being. The Moors had never gained control of the whole of the Spanish Peninsula, and their rule was resisted from the first. On the west the kingdom of Portugal emerged in the thirteenth century. In the centre of the north the kingdom of Castile dates from about the same time. The population of Aragon, the north-east part, spoke a dialect called Catalan, which also prevailed in southern France, but there was no union of the two branches. The kings of Aragon, by invitation, in 1282 became rulers of Sicily and southern Italy. This unnatural union of part of Spain with part of Italy continued for centuries and worked to the disadvantage of both countries and kings, just as the French possessions of British kings retarded the progress of England. Castile and Aragon were united in 1469 (page 270).

Hungary was an independent kingdom, and far larger than Austria. The power of the king was limited by the nobles, who forced him in 1215 to sign a Golden Bull, which was their Magna Carta. By this they were assured against arbitrary arrest, taxation, and military service except in defence of the country. Poland was also independent and developed its government along similar lines. The nobles were stronger than the king and appointed him by election. Lithuania to the east of Poland had the same king, although the laws were different. This is an example of what is called a "personal union"; England and Scotland were similarly united under the same kings but different parliaments from 1603 to 1707.

Russia during the early Middle Ages was keeping pace with the states of western Europe. There was a much frequented trade route from the Baltic Sea to the Caspian, which is evidenced by the frequent discovery of Moslem coins in the Baltic area. There was still another highway from the Baltic southwards to Constantinople. The enterprising race in this area was the Swedish, and they gave to Russia its first kings. Novgorod and Kiev were their cities. A Russian prince received in marriage the daughter of Harold, the king of England who fell before William the Conqueror in 1066. In the early thirteenth century came the Mongol invasion, and Russia became a part of Asia. From this time onwards the people were crushed under a cruel and rapacious tyranny. The second emergence of Russia as a national state belongs to the modern period (page 415).

The Holy Roman Empire

During the Middle Ages Germany was not changing in the direction of nationhood. If in ancient times it had only become a Roman province, this process would not have been so extremely slow. The whole country would have been intersected by Roman roads and the people would have been accustomed to a disciplined form of society, which no wars could have blotted out of memory. The truth of this statement is demonstrated by the fact that even in the later Middle Ages those sections of the people which had lived closest to Roman camp towns along the Rhine and the Danube were the most civilized.

Several hundred German States, large and small, were comprised in the Holy Roman Empire (page 257). It has been said of this institution that it was not Holy, it was not Roman, and it was not an empire. It claimed to be all three upon the grounds that it was the successor of the Christian Roman Empire of Constantine. This was absurd, because the empire of Constantine still survived in Con-



EUROPE IN 1500

stantinople, and between 476 and 800 the Western Roman Empire had ceased to exist even in fiction.

The head of the Holy Roman Empire was styled German Emperor, but this title was normally received at the hands of the Pope. Unless crowned by the Pope he was only German King or "King of the Romans", and even this title was not hereditary. It was conferred by a College of Electors, the membership of which after the year 1356 was regularly confined to the sacred number of seven. Three of the Seven Electors were archbishops and four were lay princes. Besides the Electors there were some three hundred lesser princes, all of them independent sovereigns who made war upon one another as they pleased. The Emperor was treated with no more respect than his men-at-arms could command. There was a sort of parliament called the Diet, which usually met at Frankfort. It embraced three groups, the College of Electors, the College of Princes, including bishops and abbots, and the College of Representatives of the Free Cities. In meetings of the Diet all three groups pulled different ways and diminished the effectiveness of the Empire.

It was the lack of authority in the Empire that permitted the free cities to grow up on the Baltic, the North Sea and the Rhine, and in northern Italy. Examples are Danzig, Hamburg, Cologne, Venice and Genoa. They conducted themselves as sovereign states, making alliances, waging war, maintaining fleets and defying the neighbouring feudal princes. They made their own laws and held their own courts (pages 288-290).

Emperors and Popes were constantly clashing because they were both sovereigns in Italy and because each claimed to be head of Christendom. The Emperor Henry IV and Pope Gregory VII plunged Germany and Italy into civil war over the right of Investiture, that is, the right to bestow a ring and a staff upon bishops and abbots as symbols of office. Gregory lost his throne, dying in exile in

1085, but in 1122 the Emperors yielded the point to the Popes by the Concordat of Worms. Concordat is the name given to a treaty between the Vatican and another sovereign state.

The Emperor Frederic Barbarossa (Red Beard) fought for a dozen years with Pope Alexander III, to decide which was the superior. He was beaten at Legnano in 1176 through the rebellion of his own Italian cities of Lombardy. In all these cities there were murderous factions: the Ghibellines favoured the Emperors, and the Guelphs the Popes. This feud proved the ruin of a strong emperor, Frederick II, who was first beaten, and then deposed by a General Council of the Church assembled at Lyons in 1245. In general the emperors were worsted; it was not reasonable for princes living north of the Alps to aspire to rule Italy. It was contrary to nature and to geography.

The ambitions and contentions of German princes prevented their people from becoming a nation. On the other hand, their disunion made it possible for the other nations to emerge around them, namely, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, England, France, Switzerland and Poland. The same is true of the free cities of both Germany and Italy. An incidental result was the emergence of strong families, such as the Hohenzollerns of Brandenburg (1415-1918), the Wittelsbachs of Bavaria (1180-1918), and the Hapsburgs of Austria (1278-1918). After 1437 it became customary to elect as emperors the Hapsburg Dukes of Austria, and they were still enjoying the title when the Empire was abolished by Napoleon in 1806.

A very important thing to remember about Europe at the close of the Middle Ages is this, that with few exceptions people were being ruled by kings of their own race. This is true of the Swedes, Norwegians, Danes, Scotch, English, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Hungarians and Poles. The exceptions are Bohemia (Czechoslovakia), which was under the Germans, and the Balkan races and

Greece, which had fallen to the Ottoman Turks. Italy was not destined to become a national state until the nineteenth century. In 1500 it comprised the two Sicilies (Sicily and southern Italy), the Papal States in the centre, the Republic of Venice in the north-east, the Republic of Genoa in the north-west, and various dukedoms and principalities in the remaining parts.

In the eighteenth century large portions of Europe were to be divided anew in defiance of race and language, and these wrongs were not to be righted until the Great War of 1914-1918, but this story will be told in its place in later chapters.

MODERN HISTORY

PART IV

THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE DIVISIONS OF WESTERN CHRISTENDOM

The Pope as Sovereign of Sovereigns—The World Religions undergo Division—Divisions of Christianity—Conflicts between the Church and Kings—The Teaching of John Wycliffe and John Knox—Cause of Persecutions.

Reforms Within the Church.—Reforms of St. Francis and St. Dominic—Nepotism and Simony—Martin Luther defies the Church—Erasmus, the Humanist—Religious Strife in Germany—The Protestant Revolution in England—John Calvin and Puritanism—Progress of Puritanism—The Inquisition in Spain—Foundation of the Society of Jesus—Hostility of Protestants and Roman Catholics.

In the year 1493 the Pope issued a bull dividing between Spain and Portugal all newly discovered lands in the New World; that is, he still claimed to be the sovereign of sovereigns, supreme over all others. This claim was acknowledged by Spain and Portugal, and had its effect upon the history of the Americas, because Brazil became Portuguese and the rest of Latin-America Spanish. Nevertheless, the papal claims to supreme authority in Europe were soon to be disputed. The same century that witnessed the conquest of Mexico, Central and South America for Roman Catholicism witnessed the Protestant Revolutions in Europe. This is no unimportant fact in World History: it means that the Spanish and Portuguese countries of the New World are in a sense the children of medieval Europe, while the remaining parts, Canada and the United States, were reserved for settlers from the new modern Europe.

The history of all three world religions, Christianity, Mohammedanism, and Buddhism, is a story of successive division. Many sects of Buddhism arose, and the supremacy of the successors of Mohammed was short-lived; by the tenth century there were caliphs in Cairo and Cordova as well as in Bagdad. Nevertheless, the divisions of Christianity are rather more important because its branches include

the most enterprising and aggressive nations of the world to-day.

Christianity spread to races speaking different languages and living under different governments. There were Nestorian Christians for a long time in Central Asia and



THE BASILICA OF ST. PETER IN ROME

The colonnades on either side represent the arms of the Church reaching out to embrace and welcome mankind.

China, subject to no central authority. Abyssinians were converted but remained completely isolated. The same was true of certain communities in Egypt and Mesopotamia. Christianity in Armenia took on a peculiar form and became a national religion. In the eleventh century the Orthodox Church, of which the head is the Patriarch of Constantinople, broke away from the Roman Catholic Church. This was a most important schism because it divided the races of Europe. The Russians, some of the Poles, part of the population of the Balkans, and the Greeks adhered to the

Orthodox Church. The rest of Europe followed Rome. The next cleavage took place between those races which inhabited ancient Roman Provinces, and so had been thoroughly Latinized, and those which dwelt beyond the former Roman frontiers. In the first class were Spain, Portugal and France; they remained Roman Catholic; in the second were part of Germany, the Scandinavian countries and Britain; they became Protestant. Britain, it is true, had been a Roman province, but it was repopulated by the Angles and Saxons.

The principle that a house divided against itself cannot stand was one cause of conflict. At intervals the head of the Holy Roman Empire in Germany had made war upon the Pope as the head of the Papal States in Italy. Even in Spain and France there was frequent friction between kings and Popes over the right to tax church property, which was very extensive and valuable; kings also desired to have bishops friendly to themselves, and demanded the right to name them. Henry II of England had declared that law-suits over church lands should be decided in royal courts, and Thomas à Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, had defied him. Such disputes were not uncommon elsewhere. Philip Augustus of France had refused to do homage to the archbishop of Amiens for lands granted to him. These conflicts of authority, however, were not the immediate cause of revolt.

A more serious opposition came from certain universities. John Wycliffe (d. 1384), a priest and a professor of Oxford University, rejected the authority of the Pope, condemned monasticism and the worldliness of the clergy, and declared that the Church should be subject to the government of the country. This meant that the Church should be national, not universal, or catholic. The Bible, he claimed, should be the sole guide of the Christian believer. His followers were called Lollards. On the continent his teachings were echoed by another professor, John Huss of Prague in Bohemia. The fate of the latter was to be

treacherously seized by the German Emperor and burned at the stake. This was an early example of the crimes committed in the name of religion that blacken the history of this century; the memory of them remains to the shame of Christianity forever. The spirit of tolerance was not established except through centuries of suffering. Hussites in Germany and Lollards in England paid the first instalments of the price of religious liberty, but persecution did not prevent their numbers from increasing.

Nothing makes its way more slowly than a new principle of morals or conduct. The reasons for cruel persecutions were chiefly two: First, for more than a thousand years men had been accustomed to think of a single universal Church in Europe; to break away from this was to ally one's self with the devil; for such an offender no ordinary death was thought painful enough; burning at the stake seemed to be the logical penalty. Secondly, kings and queens were unable to think of a nation with more than one religion; not to subscribe to the creed of the sovereign was treason. Queen Mary of England (1553-1558) was determined that her subjects should be Roman Catholics. Queen Elizabeth (1558-1603) would have preferred them all to be Protestants. Neither they nor other sovereigns could yet believe that men might worship God in various ways and still love and serve their country too. In World History the persecution of Puritans under the Stuart Kings is especially important, because it drove out of England some thousands of high-minded people who helped to found firmly the Anglo-Saxon dominion in North America (page 455). Only after forced emigrations of this sort, and many martyrdoms in many countries, and bitter religious wars did the spirit of tolerance finally gain the upper hand.

Reforms Within The Church

Movements towards reform had been by no means lacking within the Church itself. A genuine revival of

religious fervour had taken place in the thirteenth century, when the good St. Francis of Assisi (d. 1226) founded the Order of the Friars Minor, the members of which were justly famed for humility, love of the poor, and missionary enterprise. In the same age the Order of Preachers was founded by St. Dominic (d. 1221). These Dominicans and Franciscans instilled new energy into the Church, but it was not sufficient to prevent the Protestant Revolutions two centuries later.

The Popes lost prestige during their sojourn at Avignon under the protection of the king of France (1309-1377). After their return to Rome the worldliness of their lives became a universal scandal. There had been a time when to become Pope meant martyrdom, but these later successors of St. Peter lived in kingly style and luxury. Church offices were bestowed upon members of their own family (nepotism) without regard for piety or ability, or sold for a price (simony) to increase the papal revenues.

It was in Germany that the storm of rebellion first broke, and the leader was Martin Luther, himself a monk. In principle his teaching harked back to Wycliffe and Huss. In 1517 he posted on the door of a church in Wittenberg his Ninety-Five Theses, or propositions, the chief of which was directed against the sale of "indulgences", or written certificates of forgiveness for sins, which were then being sold to raise money to complete the great church of St. Peter in Rome. He declared that the sinner who had truly repented was already forgiven by God himself. In 1519 he went farther and denied the authority of either the Pope or the Church Councils to interpret the Bible, which any man might read for himself.

This defiance was followed by excommunication in 1520, which meant that he was a religious outlaw and forbidden to receive the sacraments of the Church. The war was now on. It was the duty of the German Emperor to punish him as a heretic, but a strong following stood behind him, of

both nobles and common people. Many of the former seized the opportunity to confiscate the lands of the Church and claim the taxes thereof for themselves. This was chiefly in the north; southern Germany witnessed a Peasants' Insurrection against the Church, which was put down with great severity. The result was that southern Germany was restored to Catholicism.

While the Protestant Revolution was getting under way in Germany a great revival of morality and learning alike was going on within the Church. The leader of this was the gifted humanist Erasmus (1469-1536). Born in Holland, he studied for the priesthood, was ordained and then became one of those wandering scholars who tarried in one country and another, wherever they could enjoy the patronage of rich and influential friends. Erasmus lived in France, Italy, England and Switzerland, and became personally acquainted with the intellectual men of his time. He wrote fearlessly against the abuses of religion, especially the idleness of the clergy and the worship of images and relics; this was his book entitled the *Praise of Folly*. Also very popular were his *Colloquies* or *Talks* and his *Adages*. He was in England a friend and guest of Sir Thomas More, author of *Utopia*, and of Thomas Colet, Dean of St. Paul's in London. Men of this circle gained the sympathy of the young Henry VIII for the new learning. They changed the teaching of the grammar schools, producing a generation of men who were inclined to Protestantism without being Lollards. They read the New Testament in the original Greek in an edition prepared by Erasmus himself. This paved the way for the Protestant Revolution in England.

In Germany religious wars continued until the Emperor agreed to the Religious Peace of Augsburg in 1555, which stipulated that subjects of Lutheran princes should be Lutherans and subjects of Roman Catholic princes should be Roman Catholics. The two kingdoms of Sweden and Denmark and Norway renounced Roman Catholicism for

Lutheranism. In England Henry VIII had written a book against Luther, but the time soon came when he desired a divorce from his wife, which the Pope refused. An obedient Parliament then passed in 1534 an Act of Supremacy, which declared Henry to be the head of the Church of England. Monasteries and nunneries were closed, and their lands sold to those who could buy; the royal purse was filled with money. The nobles benefited by purchases of land, and those who offered opposition on religious grounds were burned or beheaded. Under his son's rule, Edward VI, the Church of England grew stronger, and prayer-books in English, intead of Latin, were prepared. The Bible, by this time easily obtainable because of the printing-press, was more and more read. The short reign of Queen Mary (1553-1558), a bitter persecutor of Protestants, was followed by the long prosperity of Elizabeth's rule, who was tolerant for reasons of state. England became definitely Protestant, and was soon to be Puritan. Ireland remained true to Rome.

Puritanism found strong support in the teachings of John Calvin (d. 1564), a Frenchman trained in both theology and law, who made his home in Geneva, Switzerland. His work was more lasting and significant than that of either Martin Luther or Henry VIII. It was his privilege to popularize a code of morals that has influenced all English-speaking races, both in the Old and the New Worlds, hardly less than Confucianism has influenced China. It was he who first placed the ban of religion upon all the gaieties of social life, gaudy and expensive clothing, jewelry, dancing, gambling, and theatre-going. It was he also who instituted the puritan Sabbath, to be spent in rest from all work, reading the Scriptures, and attending lengthy services of worship. The English-speaking world has fallen away from his standards, but it must never be forgotten that the moral reserves created by his system have proved to be a rich treasure of vigour, intelligence and honesty,

which lies at the bottom of what is best in European life and civilization.

Calvin's teaching's spread quickly through the new channels of the book-trade, carrying with it fierce controversies, intellectual awakenings, wars and progress. In France his followers were called Huguenots, of whom thousands were massacred like sheep on St. Bartholemew's Day, 1572. In Holland Calvinism was triumphant. In Scotland it was firmly established by John Knox, a pupil of Calvin, and the Presbyterian Church of Scotland was founded in 1560. It was so named because no bishops were recognized, only elders or presbyters. From Scotland the new worship invaded England, and from England it was carried to America, where it has leavened the American character everywhere. In the course of this wide-spread revolt against Rome there arose still other sects, such as Mennonites, Baptists, and Quakers, though the correct name of the last is the Society of Friends. In general these new religious bodies were composed of merchants, small land-owners, and the thriftier classes of artisans. The nobility on the continent more often adhered to Rome and in England to the Church of England.

During the Middle Ages the Church had instituted a court to enforce conformity to its doctrines, the notorious Inquisition. The judges were churchmen and the sessions were secret. This court became only too active in Spain while the Protestant Revolutions were going on elsewhere, and heresy was stamped out by dint of torture and execution. This cruelty was matched by the burning of a Spaniard at Geneva under the direction of John Calvin, because he denied the Trinity. Thus the spirit of intolerance possessed both Protestants and Catholics. Only some minor sects were charitable towards all.

Reform within the Church, however, was more effectual than the Inquisition. In 1534 the Society of Jesus was founded by an ardent Spanish priest named Ignatius Loyola.

Its members are known as Jesuits. They were unexcelled in intelligence and self-sacrifice, and the increase of their numbers kept pace with the advance of their rivals, the Protestants. Their missionary zeal made history among the Indians of North and South America, and they renewed the Roman Catholic missions of China. In Europe their schools surpassed all others in the excellence of their teaching.

These advances by Catholics and Protestants were offset by their mutual hatreds. The legacy of this sixteenth century to the world was a division of the nations. King Philip of Spain, grown strong with the streams of gold and silver flowing from America, endeavoured to crush Protestant England in 1588. The Netherlands, inspired by their new Calvinism, rose up to assert their independence against Catholic Spain. During the following two centuries Protestant England was to be opposed to Catholic France. The rivalry of Protestant and Catholic was to make of every ship a man-of-war, to array the American Indians upon one side or the other, and to make battlegrounds of the primeval forests of the New World.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE FIRST COLONIAL EMPIRE—NEW SPAIN

Survey of the World in 1500—Insecurity and High Cost of Eastern Trade—Discovery of the Route by the Cape of Good Hope, 1497—Columbus Stumbles upon the New World, 1492—Great Good Luck of Spain—Successors of Columbus—Cortes Learns of Mexico—Capture of Mexico City—Discovery of Panama and the Western Ocean—Discovery of the Route by Cape Horn—Establishment of the Land Route by Panama—Pizarro's Conquest of Peru—Legend of Eldorado—Extension of Spanish Conquests—Rapidity of Spanish Conquests—The Portuguese Discover Brazil—Name of America.

THE NEW LANDS EUROPEANIZED.—Importation of Domestic Animals—Increase of Horses and Cattle—Introduction of Fruits—Foundation of the Sugar Industry—Foundation of Cities—Plan of Spanish Cities—Organization of Colonial Government—The Treatment of the Indians—The Portuguese Introduce Slavery—Remnants of British, French and Dutch Enterprise.

By the year 1500 a grand epoch in World History was drawing to its close. Mankind was little aware of it, because human beings had laboured like coral insects, not knowing what they were building. China, India, Babylon, Egypt, Greece and Rome had each built up its culture, and added something to the sum of civilization. The races of Central Europe and Central Asia had ceased their migrations and settled down in permanent abodes. The new national states of Europe had emerged from the stage of serfdom and feudalism. The three world religions, Christianity, Mohammedanism, and Buddhism, had spread to all known lands, and seemed to have attained their natural boundaries. Commerce was encircling the vast double continent of Eurasia along every navigable sea, and the merchandise of the Far East was exposed for sale in the shops of Lisbon, Paris and London.

These were the positive accomplishments of centuries of travail. The negative results of those same years were of hardly less significance for World History. It had been demonstrated that West and East could never maintain



VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY

Observe the land-route and water-route followed by Marco Polo in the thirteenth century. Trace the Portuguese voyages noting Diaz at South Africa in 1486 and Vasco da Gama at Calicut in 1498. Also follow Columbus on his voyage of 1492, Cabot in 1497-1498, and Magellan's great expedition around the world in 1519-1522.

permanent contacts by the long land routes. Merchandise so transported was not only costly but to maintain a constant supply was impossible. The despotism of a Genghis Khan might secure the safety of the caravans for a limited time, but the robber was always awaiting his opportunity in desert and defile along two thousand miles of distance. The routes by sea were only slightly less unsatisfactory: there was the Arab middleman, determined to take all that the traffic would bear. Every merchant of the West was aware that, however substantial his own profit might be, it was as nothing compared to the gain of the Arab who took the first toll. What the West needed was the opportunity of fetching its silks and pepper in its own ships.

The first discovery of a route to India by way of Africa was no accident. It was not accomplished at the first attempt, and it was not the result of perseverance alone. Prince Henry of Portugal, surnamed the Navigator, was an intelligent pioneer in this field. He established a school of navigation in Lisbon and despatched vessels to the coasts of Africa, to the Canary Islands, to Madeira and the Azores. It was after his death that Bartholemew Diaz reached the Cape of Storms, which was rechristened the Cape of Good Hope. The first to reach India was Vasco da Gama, who in 1498 was guided by an Arab pilot from the west coast of Africa to Calicut in India. The fact that the profits of the voyage were sixty times the cost of the expedition tells its own story. Portuguese enterprise displayed itself by taking possession of Ceylon, Sumatra, Java and the Spice Islands. By 1517 the face of the European was seen in Canton, and by 1542 in Japan. The age-old monopoly of the shrewd Arab was a thing of the past.

Vasco da Gama's eagerness to accomplish the voyage around the Cape of Good Hope had been quickened by the success of Columbus in crossing the Atlantic in 1492. Columbus was a Genoese who became possessed by the idea

that the earth was a sphere and that Japan and China might be reached by sailing westward. It was only after many vain attempts that he at last found friends to help him in the persons of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. As it was, he received only three small ships and a total crew of eight-eight men. This is not the place to rehearse the trials of his voyage, the impatience of the sailors and the courage required to sail for two months and nine days into the unknown. The important fact is this, that without being aware of it he stumbled upon the New World. Not even on subsequent voyages did he come to suspect that the islands he had found were not the East Indies. He died without knowing that he had ushered in a new era of World History.

It was fortunate for the Spanish sovereigns that Columbus was guided by the winds and by destiny straight to the West Indies. It was fortunate that he chose the island of San Domingo for the first settlement. He did not as yet know that it was so situated as to dominate the whole archipelago, and to furnish a central and convenient basis for explorations on the shores of two continents. He did not as yet know that within a short distance lay the rich Indian Empires of Mexico and Peru, the only spots where the natives of America possessed both cultivated fields and stores of precious metals. He did not know of the mines of silver that were to pour a generous stream of Spanish dollars into the world's commerce during the space of four centuries.

Columbus had no lack of successors. Hundreds of adventurers who could sail ships and fight their way into new lands followed in his wake. Little time elapsed before Cuba was occupied, and from Cuba a charming scoundrel named Hernando Cortés was despatched "to explore harbours, bays and inlets and to inquire after pearls, spices and gold" in a strange land to the west. He had eleven ships, both great and small, 550 soldiers, 110 marines and 200



THE SPANISH COLONIAL EMPIRE IN THE NEW WORLD

Santo Domingo and Panama were the starting points of voyages of conquest. Spain claimed the west coast from Vancouver Island to Cape Horn. All trade passed through the West Indies and Panama because the east coast had been ceded to Portugal by the Treaty of Tordesillas, 1494.

Indians. After the fashion of the time they were armed with swords and spears, crossbows and flintlock muskets. They had ten brass cannon and four smaller guns. There were also sixteen horses clad in mail.

Cortes the leader was as capable and daring as he was charming and unprincipled. News of the existence of Mexico City, then called Tenochtitlan, excited his curiosity and his greed. He turned aside from the task of exploration and made straight for the new goal. His path was not strewn with roses. There was plenty of fighting, but he pressed on and was received by the native king Montezuma as an unwelcome guest. It is an old story how he seized the king by treachery, how he was forced to return to the sea to fight off a rival leader of his own race, how he returned with more soldiers, and at last made himself master of the country. Montezuma himself was mysteriously killed by an unknown hand in a throng of Mexican and Spanish soldiers.

It was in 1520 that Mexico City fell into the hands of Cortes. The speed with which the Indians were conquered and reconciled to his rule is proof of his ability as a general and an organizer. From Mexico he sent a force to explore and take possession of Central America. Here was the ancient Empire of the Maya Indians, the ruins of whose gigantic temples and palaces lie hidden in the jungles and forests to this day. At the same time that the forces of Cortes were pressing southward into this region another Spanish expedition had been penetrating northward from Panama. By the year 1524 Central America had been added to the territory of New Spain.

The same extraordinary destiny that led the Spaniards straight to San Domingo had brought them to Panama. They had established themselves on its shores before they knew it to be an isthmus washed on its farther side by a vast and unknown sea. The discovery of this sea was the work of a less charming scoundrel than Cortes, Balboa. He

had made himself a leader by putting his commander in chains and shipping him home to Spain. His base was a new settlement in the Bay of Darien. At a point not far distant he left his ships and set out with a force of 200 soldiers and a larger number of Indians. It was necessary to fight his way to the crest of the isthmus. He chose to mount the eminence alone, and on September 25, 1513, gazed out upon the Pacific, "giving thanks to God who had permitted a lowly person like himself to discover the great, main sea". Then with drawn sword in one hand and the banner of Spain in the other he waded into the billows and took formal possession of both water and land in the name of his king.

The isthmus of Panama runs east and west. Balboa was facing south when he first saw the unknown ocean. He therefore called it the South Sea, and by this name it was long and widely known. The name Pacific Ocean was given to it by Ferdinand Magellan only seven years after the eyes of Balboa first beheld it, but did not come into general use until long afterwards. Magellan was an expert Portuguese navigator in the service of Spain. Interest in the New World was by this time increasing rapidly, and he was given five ships and provisions for two years. He set out in 1519, wintered in Patagonia, and made his way into the western sea the following year. He named it the Pacific Ocean because it seemed so peaceful after the stormy passage of the straits, which required thirty-eight days. The later sufferings of his men, his own death in the Philippine Islands, and the arrival in Spain of a single surviving ship, loaded with spices, is another story. Almost two centuries were to pass before ships regularly ventured to round the Horn, as the extremity of South America came to be called.

In the meantime the famous pathway by land from ocean to ocean was established in Panama. Balboa's successor was found in his own company. This man was Francisco

Pizarro, who was as unprincipled as Cortes without being so charming. In Spain he had been a swineherd. In the New World he came to the front through his courage and self-assurance. Hearing of a rich kingdom south of Panama he formed a partnership with another adventurer and a priest to go and conquer it. To obtain the approval of the king he returned to Spain. The royal favour was granted; he was assisted in building ships on the Pacific and appointed governor of the land to be conquered. Soon he prepared to sail southward from Panama with new forces, including his two brothers, likewise tenders of swine.

In 1532 the expedition embarked. The exploits of Cortes in Mexico were now repeated in Peru. Pizarro became the guest of the Inca or Emperor, called Atahualpa, took an opportunity to make him a prisoner, and agreed to give him freedom at the price of a room filled with treasure. The treasure was no sooner delivered than the Inca was ordered to be strangled. A rope was tied around his neck, a stout stick was thrust through it and twisted until life was extinct. Many of Atahualpa's soldiers had already been slain and the rest were bewildered. Pizarro with his few hundred Spaniards made a daring march across lofty mountains to the chief capital Cuzco, and easily secured possession. Thus an Empire of 10,000,000 inhabitants fell to a few hundred Spanish soldiers led by an audacious swineherd.

The work of "mopping up" was speedily pushed. A Spaniard of lowly birth named Banalcazar was despatched to overcome resistance in the northern Inca capital of Quito, now capital of Ecuador. From there he marched northward into another wealthy region inhabited by the Chibcha Indians. It was a land of gold and emeralds, home of the legend of El Dorado. These words mean "the gilded king". The story goes that when a new king came into power his naked body was rubbed with moist clay and sprinkled with gold dust. In this guise he entered a boat

loaded with gold and precious stones, paddled out to the centre of a sacred lake, and dropped his treasure into the water as an offering to the gods. Tales of this "gilded king" spread with incredible rapidity and have made the name Eldorado familiar to the whole civilized world.

Banalcazar, however, did not go down to history as the conqueror of the Chibchas. This questionable honour belongs to a man named Quesada, who invaded the country from the Caribbean Sea and founded the city of Bogota in 1538. In the meantime Pizarro's generals were assuming control of Charcas, now called Bolivia, and of Chili. From the Atlantic side explorers entered the Rio de la Plata in 1508. In 1535 the first attempt was made by Mendoza to found Buenos Aires. One of his company followed the Paraná River inland for a thousand miles, and in 1537 founded Asuncion, now capital of Paraguay. So quickly was the new continent explored and settled.

All of these conquerors are known to history by the Spanish name of conquistadors. Their work was accomplished well within fifty years after 1492. They spread the dominion of Spain only too widely. In North America, Florida, the Gulf Coast, Texas, and much more, was thinly settled and weakly held. This belt of land was doomed to be lost by Spain to the United States. The heart of the empire of Spain in the New World was in Mexico and Peru, where agriculture already flourished among the Indians.

While Spain was busy in the New World of the West the Portuguese had been pursuing discoveries in the Eastern Hemisphere. It has already been mentioned how Vasco da Gama had sailed round the Cape of Good Hope to Mozambique and India. In the year 1500 a fleet of vessels was despatched in the same direction under Cabral, but he violated orders, sailed westward and discovered Brazil. The claim thus established was often disputed but never abandoned. Many years elapsed, however, before the exploitation of Brazil was seriously undertaken. The story will be told elsewhere (pp. 410-411).

The New World received its name of *America* by a curious mischance. Among the throngs of explorers who sought its shores in the wake of Columbus was a Florentine captain named Amerigo Vespucci. By him a letter was written describing a voyage he claimed to have made to South America in 1497. This letter fell into the hands of an ill-informed German printer, who proposed that the new land should be named in his honour. Thus the name *America* found its way into maps and was finally adopted by all. Only the Republic of Colombia in South America and the province of British Columbia in Canada are named after Columbus.

The New Lands Europeanized

The speed with which the Spaniards repaired the deficiencies of the New World is no less remarkable than the speed with which they conquered it. Columbus himself realized that if the white man was going to live in the New World he must bring his food with him. Therefore, upon his first return he brought horses, cows, goats, pigs and chickens. Gonzalo Pizarro, brother of the conqueror, is said to have taken 5,000 swine into Ecuador. Valdivia, a general of Pizarro's army, took domestic animals with him when he set out for the conquest of Chili.

All of these animals throve in the new land, and especially the horses and cattle. Stray animals soon founded wild herds, which rapidly increased. This was more particularly true on the wide llanos of the Orinoco and the pampas of Argentina. Both in North and South America the Indian took to the horse as if born to the saddle. Horses became so common that to borrow one was no more than borrowing an umbrella. Beef became the staple food, and the waste was lamentable. Fresh meat was required daily, and animals were constantly being killed to meet the needs. Several kinds of meat were served at a single meal. Even at the present time the consumption of

meat in Spanish America is several times greater than in other countries.

Equal promptness was displayed in bringing European grains, garden seeds and trees. Cortés ordered his officials to plant every year one thousand grape-vines or other useful plants for each hundred Indians assigned to their rule. The vineyards of Chili to-day are famous. Orange trees were widely disseminated. In Paraguay oranges are fed to hogs.

The introduction of sugar-cane was of the most far-reaching importance for the New World. This was brought into Brazil by the Portuguese in 1532, only twenty years after the first arrival of Columbus. Plantations multiplied rapidly and stimulated the trade in negro slaves, who were found to surpass the surly Indians as labourers. The industry spread to all Spanish possessions because it was especially adapted to the islands and coasts, where the product could easily be shipped. Thus arose the famous traffic in sugar, molasses and rum, the secret of most fortunes in colonial days.

Animals and plants, however, were only a secondary concern of the Spaniards. From the first they planned to transfer to America the whole pattern of life in Spain. For this purpose the first necessity was cities suitably located. No fewer than 200 were founded within eighty years after the discovery of the New World. Half of these were in South America. Every general was commanded by the king to build at least three. It will be recalled that Pizarro himself founded Lima, and his general Valdivia founded Santiago in Chili.

All of these cities were laid out on a checker-board plan. The centre was occupied by a public square, on the sides of which were erected the government buildings and the church, or the cathedral, if the city was to be the seat of a bishop. The lines of other streets were run parallel to the sides of the square. In many cities universities for the

training of lawyers, physicians and priests were also founded. The Universities of Lima and Mexico City are more than eighty years older than Harvard, the earliest in the United States.

The Spanish pattern of government and society was distinctly aristocratic. Supreme over all was the King of Spain, who regarded all Spanish possessions in the New World as his personal property. He was represented by Viceroys, most important of whom was the Viceroy of Peru. For purposes of government the whole country from the West Indies to the Pacific Coast and from California to Cape Horn was divided into judicial districts called *Audiencias*. For example, the West Indies were comprised in the Audiencia of San Domingo. In South America were the following Audiencias: Caracas, Bogota, Quito, Lima, Santiago, Charcas (now Bolivia and Paraguay), and Buenos Aires (now Argentina and Uruguay). Less important Audiencias were ruled by Captains-General, subject to the Viceroys.

From the very first the city was the centre of colonial life, not as in Canada and the United States, where settlements came first and cities later. The lands surrounding the cities were divided among Spanish gentlemen, usually officers in the early days, and with the land went the Indian villages. It was the strict command of the king that the Indians should be treated kindly, but he was too far away to enforce these orders. In Peru and Charcas (Bolivia) the Indians were compelled to work in the mines, where they sickened and died by thousands. Elsewhere they perished in the sugar plantations, until Negroes were imported to take their places. The lot of the Indian was more tolerable on the ranches, where he enjoyed the open-air life to which he was accustomed.

The Portuguese did not devote themselves so vigorously as the Spaniards to the development of their colonies in South America. They were more interested in Africa and

the East Indies. The coast of Brazil was divided into large blocks of land fronting on the Atlantic and assigned to landlords. These divisions were called Captaincies. The landlords did little either to rule or to develop the country. The Indians were ruthlessly rounded up to furnish labour for the sugar plantations, where they perished. This persecution never ceased until the surviving Indians found a refuge among the Jesuits in Paraguay. Indian labour was at last replaced by negro slaves, and in this hideous traffic the Portuguese were the pioneers.

The slackness of the Portuguese aroused the hopes of the French in making a settlement in Brazil. It was French Huguenots who first took possession of Rio de Janeiro, the present capital. After a few years they were driven out, and the Portuguese city of Rio de Janeiro founded in 1567. The only remnant of French enterprise to-day is the unhappy colony of French Guiana situated north of the Amazon. Dutch and British Guiana are similar monuments of frustrated colonial designs in South America.

CHAPTER XXXVI

TURKEY AND RUSSIA IN EUROPE

EXPANSION OF TURKEY.—Losses in Europe Offset Gains in America—Steady Advances of Ottoman Turks in Europe—The Fall of Constantinople, 1453—Turkish Conquests in Asia and Africa—Second Expansion of Turkey in Europe—Organization of the Turkish Empire—Limitation of Turkish Expansion.

RESTORATION OF RUSSIA TO EUROPE.—Decline of Mongol Empire—Medieval Trade through Russia—Life of the Nobles in Medieval Russia—The First Mongol Invasion, 1223—Conquest by the Golden Horde—Nature of the Mongol Despotism—Crimes of Ivan the Terrible—Late Beginnings of Serfdom—Emigration to Siberia.

EXPANSION OF TURKEY IN EUROPE

The colonial empire founded by the Spaniards in the West Indies, Mexico, Central and South America was something new in history. It was a transplantation of the life, thought, religion and government of part of Europe to the New World. At the very same time that this novel colonial empire was being founded, an Asiatic empire of the old despotic type was extending itself among the races of south-eastern Europe. Even while Europe gained new territory in America it was losing old territory to Asia. The divisions and factions of western Christendom proved to be the opportunity of Islam, for the Turks were Mohammedans. They had crossed the Dardanelles into Europe before the Moors were driven out of Spain into Africa.

Elizabeth of England was still a young queen when Suleiman the Magnificent (d. 1566) was ruling as Sultan in Constantinople. The foundations of his empire had been laid by a great fighter called Othman, from whom came the name Ottoman Turks. It is said that in the beginning he had a body of only four hundred followers, whose courage was so supreme that they carried all before them. His successors made themselves master of Asia Minor, established their capital at Brusa, almost within sight of

Constantinople, and abandoned the title of Prince (Emir) for that of Sultan. In 1356 they crossed the Dardanelles and took Adrianople. By 1400 they were dominating the Balkan Peninsula and still advancing in spite of valiant resistance by Yugoslavs, Bulgarians, Hungarians and Poles. In 1444 a new Crusade, organized by the Pope of Rome, came to disaster at the battle of Varna.

The siege of Constantinople occurred in 1453. The city was splendidly fortified, but the defenders were a mere 8,000 opposed to twenty times that number. Prodigies of valour were performed, but resistance was hopeless. The last emperor, named Constantine like the first, died by the sword in the thick of the fray. To the people of Europe it seemed as if their civilization was doomed to ruin. This was not because the Eastern Roman Empire was still powerful; its dominions had shrunk to a strip of shore, and for a long time Constantinople had been little more than a commercial city-state like Venice; but the great church of St. Sophia stood to all men as a symbol of Christianity. The city itself was to the faithful what Jerusalem had been to the Jews, a Holy City, consecrated in their imaginations by centuries of glorious history. It was an embodiment of the past, the visible monument of a Roman Empire which still ruled their imaginations, if not their actions.

It was not only Europe, however, that fell to the arms and ambitions of the Sultans. They invaded Persia and became masters of Mesopotamia. They acquired Syria, Palestine and Egypt. To the title of Sultan they added that of Caliph, and claimed to be the successors of Mohammed as well as of Constantine. They also took to the sea and won submission of the Moslem princes of the African coast as far west as Algeria.

The time consumed by this expansion of territory in Asia and Africa had given a respite to Europe. It was Suleiman the Magnificent, contemporary of Queen Elizabeth, who again looked to the west and the north. He was

a picturesque warrior, but only the results of his campaigns concern the student of World History. In 1529 he laid siege to Vienna, and the price of his retirement was the surrender by the Holy Roman Emperor of the larger part of Hungary. Both Poles and Hungarians continued to resist him, but to no avail. The land north of the Black Sea was brought under his rule, which rightfully belonged to Russia, soon to emerge again as an independent European state. By sea the conqueror won victories and islands from the Venetians. In the end the Greeks, like the Yugoslavs, Bulgarians, Rumanians and Magyars, came under his sway (map p. 417).

The government of the Turkish empire was an ordinary Asiatic despotism. It was organized after the usual pattern, divided into provinces, each with its governors and tax-collectors. The peasant made ten piles of grain, and the tax-collector took his choice of one; he made ten stacks of hay, and again the collector took his choice. The lower officials were more grasping than those above them, which is usually true where despots rule. Christians were not persecuted but they paid special taxes and were excluded from public office. The heads of all Christian communities were held responsible for all crimes among their people. Christian churches were dismantled and the spoils melted down to make ornaments for mosques. Every year a certain number of Christian boys were taken from their homes and reared as Turkish soldiers, the famous Janissaries. Their skill with arms and their courage in battle were such as to keep all Christendom at bay for centuries.

The expansion of the Turkish dominion hastened the end of the Middle Ages in Europe. The fall of Constantinople dispersed the merchants who had long traded in its markets. The incessant naval warfare in the Mediterranean sapped the prosperity of Venice, which was already doomed to decline by the discovery of sea-routes to India and the Spice Islands in 1498. The reign of Suleiman the Magnificent was drawing to a close as the last wars against the Moslems

began in Spain. Castile and Aragon were united by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella in 1469. Spain was thus in a position to join with Austria and Venice in a Holy League against the Turk. The naval victory of Lepanto in 1571 was unusually decisive. It marked the limit of Turkish expansion in the Mediterranean. By land the end of hostilities had not arrived, but Turkey was accepted as a neighbour and recognized as one of the powers of Europe. This status was gained in the sixteenth century and endured almost to the present time. Turkey participated in the Great War of 1914-1918.

Restoration of Russia to Europe

While south-eastern Europe was being lost to the Turks, a corresponding gain was being registered by the recovery of unhappy Russia, for the Mongols in Asia had had their day. Their empire was dwindling as the Turkish empire grew.

It was in the sixteenth century, after an interval of almost three centuries, that Russia began to resume its place as a European state. During the early Middle Ages she had been an intimate neighbour of Sweden, Norway, Denmark and England. There was a much frequented trade route from the Baltic through Russia to the Caspian Sea. It was probably this traffic that first brought into prominence the free trading cities of the later Hanseatic League. An Arab geographer has preserved for us a long list of articles that reached the Moslem markets of Central Asia by this route, the finest furs, high fur caps, fish-glue, fish-teeth, amber, tanned horse hides, honey, hazel-nuts, falcons, swords, armour, maple wood, slaves, and big and small cattle. These articles were bought for cash, as the frequent discovery of Moslem coins in Norway, Sweden and Finland testifies to this day. At least one English king copied these coins. It has already been mentioned that King Harold of England gave his daughter in marriage to a Swedish prince of Russia, who was crowned in 1113.

In this era the life of Russia, as well as its laws, was similar to that of England, France and Germany. In one respect it was better, because serfdom had not come into being. The peasant was free. The nobles fought their neighbours and hunted wild boars, bears and wolves. The prince who married Harold's daughter boasts as follows: "In my youth what falls from my horse did I not experience, wounding my feet and my hands, and breaking my head against trees; but the Lord watched over me. In hunting, amidst the thickest forests, how many times have I myself caught wild horses and bound them together? How many times have I been thrown down by wild oxen, wounded by the antlers of stags, and trodden under the feet of elks? A furious wild boar rent my sword from my baldrick; my saddle was torn to pieces by a bear. This terrible beast rushed upon my horse, whom he threw down upon me. But the Lord protected me. O my children, fear neither death nor wild beasts. Trust in Providence; it far surpasses all human precautions." [1]

This Russia of the early Middle Ages, in close touch with the Baltic and the North Sea, was turned into a province of the Mongol Empire by the generals of Genghis Khan in the early thirteenth century. It was in 1223 that two of the most daring and brilliant generals of the world's greatest conqueror entered southern Russia by way of the Caucasus with their well disciplined hordes of mounted archers. They swept all before them, and by the Dneiper River routed the ruling Russian prince with his 82,000 followers. Then they retired by way of the Crimea, but only to report to their chief of the rich black lands of the Far West.

It was after a grand council held at Karakorum by Ogotai, son and successor of Genghis, that the Mongols returned to complete the conquest of Europe. The commander was Batu, grandson of Genghis, and his host of

[1] Howard P. Kennard, M.D. *The Russian Peasant*, p. 148.



EUROPE, 1650 A.D.

horsemen was known as the Golden Horde. He was opposed by the armies of Christendom, Poles, Germans, Teutonic Knights, Templars, and Hungarians. The Mongols, like Hannibal in Italy, made of every move a grand surprise, and when the battles were finished there were no Teutonic Knights and no Templars surviving. The arrow-heads of the enemy were so well tempered that they penetrated armour. The perfectly disciplined squadrons of horsemen were too quick and elusive for the slow-moving armies of Europe.

The Mongols retired from Central Europe, which was six thousand miles from Karakorum, but they remained in Russia, on the Volga, where Christian travellers visited them from time to time. Russia became a province of an Asiatic empire. Every Russian prince was required to go in person to the Grand Khan, bow himself to the ground, and humbly beg as a slave to be presented with the tablet of authority. Without this tablet no prince dared to demand the obedience of the people. Later khans were even less magnanimous and more rapacious and cruel. Bad crops are frequent in Russia, but failure to pay the required tribute was the signal for a visit of the Golden Horde, and by fire and sword they exacted a bitter penalty of poverty and misfortune. The Mongol governors encouraged disunion and made treachery profitable. Russian princes were tempted to spy upon one another. The peasants learned to conceal what they possessed and to regard all men with suspicion. It was about 1480 that Russia began to be independent again, but the first czars (also *tsars*) were almost as wicked as the Mongols.

Moscow, which was founded in 1147, and so was younger than Novgorod and Kiev, was the seat of the first Russian czars, and one of the first of these was Ivan the Terrible (b. 1539). He was, like Suleiman the Magnificent, a contemporary of Queen Elizabeth, who was curious about him and sent envoys to report to her about his court. To describe

his cruelties there are no adjectives sufficiently shocking. Murder was his ordinary amusement, but only one of his crimes will be mentioned; in 1571 he put to death by flogging, drowning, burning, and other methods too hideous to rehearse, some 60,000 men, women and children of Novgorod, and for no better reason than suspicions of disloyalty.



THE KREMLIN OF MOSCOW

An old picture of the fortress or citadel in the heart of Moscow. In the palaces within this fortified enclosure lived the czar and his court, before Peter the Great transferred the capital to St. Petersburg. Since the revolution of 1917 the Communists have made the Kremlin the centre of the government.

The region around Moscow was rendered desolate and tenantless by what, in his case, were minor crimes.

Ivan treated the nobles like slaves, and they in turn ground down the peasant to secure the money to satisfy the king. The peasants were forced to spend in the king's liquor shops what money was not taken by the tax-gatherers. They were required to turn their backs when a nobleman passed, or to prostrate themselves before him.

Nevertheless, the poor man was not tied to the soil. It was Ivan's second successor, Boris Godunoff, who, in 1587, by imperial decree (*ukase*), attached the servants to the estates. This meant that the peasant became a serf, bound to remain upon the estate where he was born. Thus serfdom began in Russia at the very time that it was disappearing from western Europe.

Both Ivan the Terrible and Boris Godunoff were Mongols. It was not until 1613 that the famous family of Romanovs (Romanoffs) came to the throne by popular choice. They were neither Mongol nor Russian but German; the founder of the family had been in Russia since the early fourteenth century. The Romanovs had difficulties in repairing the desolation caused by previous despots and in defending the country from the Swedes, Poles, Turks and Tartars. Nevertheless there was a consistent effort made to reach natural boundaries on all sides. For a long time the chief growth was in the direction of Siberia, where peasants found refuge from hardships at home or were exiled for political reasons. It was not until the time of Peter the Great at the end of the seventeenth century that Russia began to expand westwards (page 477). He divided the realm into provinces and appointed governors. This marked the true beginnings of the Russian Empire, 1708.

CHAPTER XXXVII

INDIA, CHINA AND JAPAN

Europeans Exploring for Markets in the East—Age of Great Despots in Europe and Asia—Survival of the Mongol Dynasties.

India.—Babur of Kabul Makes Conquests in India—The Indian Empire of Akbar—Character of Akbar—Jahangir and his Capable Empress—The Wealth of the Mogul Emperors—Reign of Shajahan—Rise of the Maratha Kingdom—Persian Invasion of India—British East India Company.

China.—How Chinese Dynasties Were Founded—The Great Emperor Yung-lo—Rise of the Manchus—Foundation of the Manchu Dynasty, 1644—Skill of the Ming Artisans.

Japan Becomes a Hermit State.—A Strong Man, Hideyoshi—Foundation of the Shogunate, 1603—Expulsion of Foreigners—Treatment of Foreign Visitors.

In the sixteenth century, while the Spaniards with almost unbelievable speed were creating a New Spain in Mexico, Central and South America, Europeans were not yet thinking of colonies in the Far East. They were merely exploring for markets among races already civilized. To India and China it mattered little as yet that a few ships from Portugal or Holland were seeking cargoes of black pepper, cinnamon, sugar and ginger.

Nowhere in the world of those days was there government of the people, by the people and for the people. It was an age of autocracy more or less capable or incapable, merciful or cruel, but everywhere powerful. The remarkable feature of the time is this, that in a single age there should have been so many sovereigns of outstanding character in such widely separated places. In Spain was the hard-working Phillip II, master of the seas; England was prospering under the shrewd administration of Queen Elizabeth; Russia was under the strong rule of Ivan the Terrible; in Turkey Suleiman the Magnificent was holding a vast empire to high efficiency; in India the Mogul Dynasty, the last of its kind, was rising to its peak of power, and in

China the last genuine Chinese dynasty, that of the Mings, was in the middle of its course. Japan was ruled by the self-confident oligarchy which is called the Shogunate.

The Mongol power had risen in Asia about 1200 under Genghis Khan. The removal of the capital to Cambaluc (Peking) at the end of the same century under Kublai Khan was a fatal error; alcoholism and luxury spelled the doom of the new dynasty; it was overthrown by the Mings in 1368. It survived longer in north-central Asia, holding Russia in Europe until the end of the fifteenth century. In south-central Asia it had renewed itself under the cruel genius of Tamerlane (Timur) at the end of the fourteenth. The last renewal took place under Babur in India in the sixteenth. The Mogul Dynasty there founded by him continued after a fashion until 1857.

India

Babur, King of Kabul, was rightful heir to the genius and vitality of the greatest Mongols. On his father's side he was descended from Tamerlane, and on his mother's from the famous Genghis himself. He established himself in India by the usual Asiatic method, first by successful raids and then by permanent occupation. However strange it may seem to western races, he was a refined man, devoted to good literature and a lover of the beautiful in art and nature. He gave up wine because it diminished his efficiency. He wrote memoirs of his own life, revealing his own faults and virtues with a fascinating frankness.

His estimate of India and its people was harshly set forth:

> Hindustan is a country that has few pleasures to recommend it. The people are not handsome. They have no idea of the charms of friendly society, of frankly mixing together, or of familiar intercourse. They have no good horses, no good flesh, no grapes or musk-melons, no good fruits, no ice or cold water, no good food or bread in their bazars, no baths or colleges, no candles, no torches, not even a candlestick. The chief excellency of Hindustan is, that it is a large country, and has abundance of gold and silver. Another convenience of Hindustan is, that the

> workmen of every profession and trade are innumerable, and without end. For any work, or any employment, there is always a set ready, to whom the same employment and trade have descended from father to son for ages.[1]

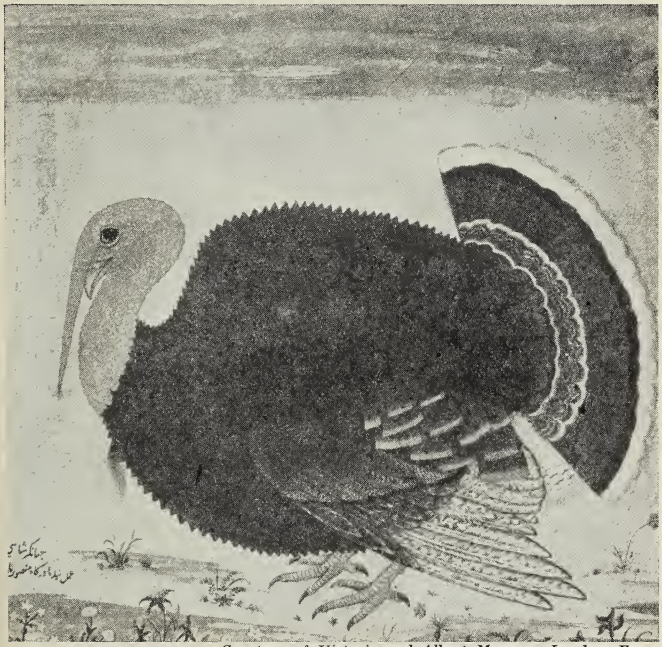
After the death of Babur in 1530 there was the usual anarchy, which ceased by degrees as his brilliant grandson Akbar rose to power. This prince was only thirteen years of age when he became a king without a kingdom, but he was fortunate in possessing a loyal and capable general named Bairam Khan. The kingdom was recovered for him. After thirty years he dismissed this stout lieutenant and took charge himself. For kingship he had been well prepared both by excellent training and by experience of adversity. By continual wars he maintained his dominion over Kabul and Kashmir as well as northern India, Bengal, and part of the Deccan. He failed in his ambition to bring the whole of India under his sway, and died at the age of sixty-three in 1605, two years after Queen Elizabeth. His death was probably hastened by the use of opium.

By this time India was in touch with Europe, and descriptions of his court are extant, written by visiting Jesuits. They extol his intelligence, sagacity, refinement of manners, and his justice. He collected an enormous library, and was keenly interested in theology. He was tolerant of religious differences at a time when men calling themselves Christians were burning one another at the stake in Europe. He was curious about all creeds and found faults in every one of them. He even dreamed of choosing the good out of many beliefs and formulating a religion that might be acceptable to all his subjects. He called this new religion the Divine Unity and fancied himself the regent of God on earth. It did not spread beyond a few friends and members of his court. His lasting accomplishment was to found firmly the dynasty of the Great Moguls. It may be added that both Babur and Akbar had the advantage of

[1] Lieut.-Col. F. G. Talbot, *Memoirs of Babur*, p. 190.

possessing brass cannon, which came into use at an earlier date than small firearms. They could capture the strongest fortresses.

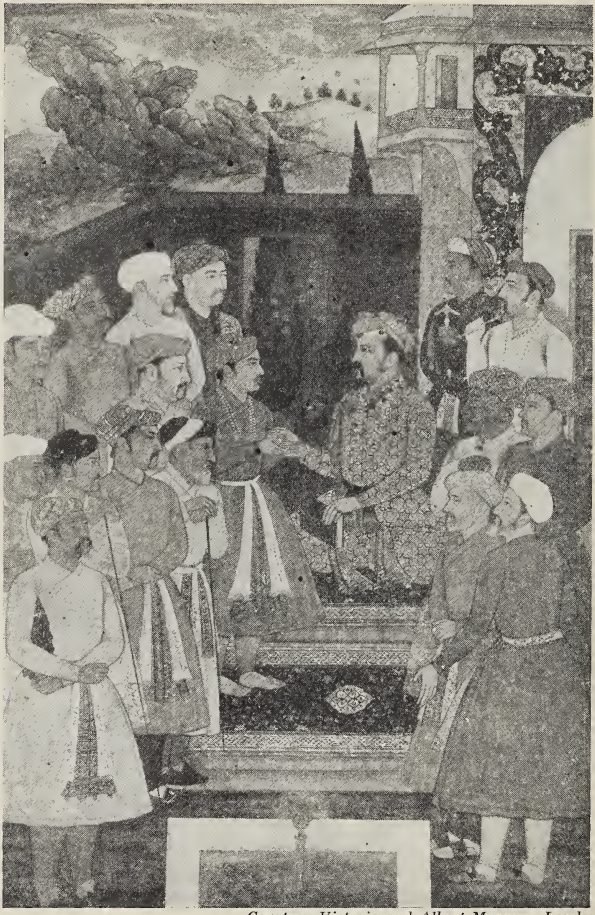
Akbar was succeeded by his son Jahangir. He procured



Courtesy of Victoria and Albert Museum, London, Eng.

INDIAN PAINTING OF A TURKEY WITH THE SEAL OF JAHANGIR (1605-1627) ON THE REVERSE SIDE. PROCURED FROM THE PORTUGUESE AT GOA.

a wife for himself by the same method that King David acquired Bath-sheba, by contriving to have her husband die. This talented woman, whom he called Nurjahan, "Light of the World", became a real empress and ruled India while her husband made merry with meat and wine. The drunken



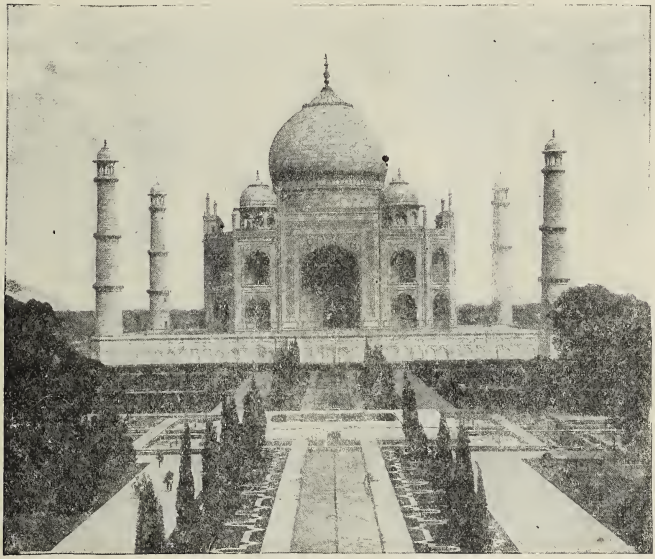
Courtesy Victoria and Albert Museum, London

JAHANGIR AND HIS COURTIERS

monarch was once visited by Sir Thomas Roe, an ambassador of James I of England. Another Englishman tells of

the royal cruelties, which the Persian wife endeavoured to restrain, as well as his excessive drinking.

The marvellous wealth of Indian princes is revealed by the fact that his revenues at this time amounted to something like the equivalent of $100,000,000 for the land-tax



THE TAJ MAHAL AT AGRA

One of the most beautiful buildings in India. It was built by the Mongol Emperor Jahan (1627-1658) as a tomb for his wife.

and as much again from the customs. The government was of the usual oriental type. The country was divided into fifteen provinces governed by military officers. These were graded after the usual Mongol fashion according as they commanded 10, 100, 1,000, or 10,000 men.

The next emperor, Shahjahan, was celebrated alike for wealth and cruelty. His personal fortune was estimated

at one and three-quarter billion dollars. He ordered all recently erected temples of the Hindus to be destroyed, for he was less tolerant than Akbar and Jahangir. He stormed the Portuguese fort at Hooghly near Calcutta and put 10,000 of its defenders to death by explosions, drowning or burning. Four thousand prisoners were tortured. It was this monster who ordered the erection, in memory of his wife, of the exquisite tomb known as the Taj Mahal, which cost $20,000,000, and employed a multitude of workmen for twenty-two years. It is said that architects were imported from Florence to superintend the construction, but the expanded dome was already naturalized in Persia and India. Other magnificent buildings of the same reign are preserved at Agra and Delhi.

The genius of this brilliant family of despots was reproduced in the person of Auranzeb, son of Shahjahan. He gained the throne in 1659 in true oriental fashion, by deposing his father and by compassing the deaths of his three brothers, who had similar designs against himself. He was a Moslem bigot and destroyed a thousand temples of the Hindus and closed their schools. His severity called into existence a new kingdom of the raiding type in the uplands of the Deccan, founded by a born leader of men, Sevaji, a champion of Hinduism and protector of Brahmans and sacred cows. Sevaji's men, the famed Marathas, were light horsemen armed with lances. They rode nimble ponies, and carried no baggage except in their saddle-bags. These flying squadrons, which always avoided general engagements, worried and baffled the cumbersome armies of Aurunzeb, in whose encampment the royal tents alone occupied a space three miles in circuit.

This bigot died in 1707, the year in which England and Scotland were finally united. He had ruled India in the interests of the Mohammedan minority, had re-imposed the head-tax on all other sects, and he bequeathed a legacy of evil to his sons. They were quite incapable, and the anarchy of the following fifty years was a swift preparation for

foreign interference. In 1739 the country experienced one of the periodical invasions from Central Asia. A Persian usurper dashed in for plunder, massacred 30,000 people at Delhi in half a day, and departed with the crown jewels and the famous peacock throne. He also made the usual levy of skilled workmen, whom he needed in Persia. This did not affect the regions ruled by the British East India Company, which were still slight, namely, Bombay, Madras and Bengal.

China



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

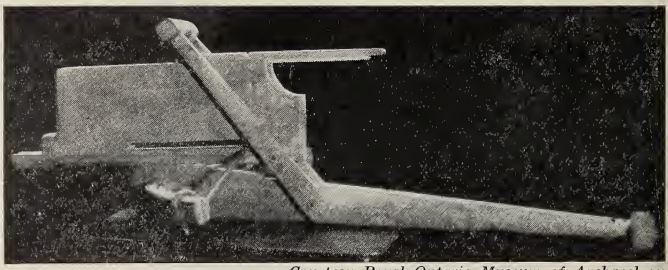
(*Right*) Chinese Buddha of Gilded Bronze, Ming Dynasty (1368-1644 A.D.).

(*Left*) Glazed Pottery Lohan, Chinese Tang Dynasty (618-906 A.D.)

A disciple of Buddha, a human being who had reached the end of the eight-fold path and had attained perfection and enlightenment.

It has been said that in the sixteenth century the Ming Dynasty of China was in the middle of its course. This was founded in the usual way in 1368. The history of all dynasties in China was similar. A man of unusual force of character, enraged by the vices of the government, became a rebel, gained a following, lost many a fight, and so learned

the art of controlling men. Gradually knowledge and experience turned the scale towards success, his following increased with victory, and at last he stormed the capital, proclaimed himself emperor, and assumed a new name. His children, surrounded by crafty eunuchs, learned the vices and pleasures of the palace; the ministers of state became dishonest, and crushed and robbed the people until finally a new revolution took place. It is to the credit of the Mings that they ruled so long, 1368-1644.



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

CHINESE REPEATING CROSSBOW

Used probably from very early times to the beginning of the nineteenth century. The rate of discharge may be as high as 10 arrows in 15 seconds.

The greatest of the early Mings was Yung-lo. Under his rule Chinese dominion and commerce reached its greatest extension by sea. In 1405 he sent a fleet of junks to collect tribute from Bengal, Burma, Cambodia, Malacca, Java and Borneo. It is even recorded that Chinese authority was acknowledged as far as Ceylon. In the south he annexed Tongking and in the north Mongolia. Even Japan seems to have admitted his overlordship, although Japanese pirates continued to land and plunder the Chinese shores.

The Ming emperors were not a very distinguished group, and the dynasty came to its end after the usual fashion. In 1421 the capital was moved from Nanking to Peking, which means Northern Capital. This had the disadvantage of

being far from the more fertile provinces, but was nearer to the points of danger from the Mongols and the Tartars. The Mongols had had their day, though they could still be mischievous, and by this time it was the turn of a Tartar tribe of kindred origin to rule China, namely, the Manchus. They were prepared for this responsibility by a shrewd and haughty leader named Noorhachu. He first made himself



Tomb of Noorhachu at Mukden, Manchuria

master of Manchuria, and then defied the Mings by refusing to pay tribute. His next step was to fix his capital at Mukden and assume the title of Emperor.

After Noorhachu's death the Manchus were invited by a Chinese general to assist him in overcoming a rival, for there was rebellion aplenty, and, having taken Peking, they chose to remain. All the Chinese were required to shave their heads and to wear a queue as a token of submission. This custom was not abandoned until 1911, when the

modern Republic was founded. The latter event seemed to the Chinese like a recovery of freedom from foreign domination, and was signalized by a quaint ceremony. Dr. Sun Yat Sen, the provisional president of the new





Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

(*Left*) STONE HEAD OF KWAN YIN, TANG DYNASTY (618-906 A.D.). Goddess of Mercy, originally a Tibetan male deity.
(*Right*) IRON HEAD, MING DYNASTY (1368-1644 A.D.)

republic, repaired to the tomb of the first Ming emperor at Nanking and solemnly informed him of the overthrow of the Manchus.

If the Mings were an undistinguished group, the artisans

of the period made up for the mediocrity of the palace. Their porcelain is famous. Their fine white ware was the most beautiful that Europeans had ever seen. Beautiful work was also done in enamel. The olive, brown and red lacquer work of the period is especially prized. The use of lacquer had passed from China to Japan, was passed back again under the Mings, and practised with more skill than before. There were besides hundreds of painters and some philosophers, although in painting and literature the works of the Tang Dynasty were not quite equalled.

Japan Becomes a Hermit State

The first Portuguese ship reached Japan in the year that Queen Elizabeth was born, 1542. The country was still in the feudal age, and Roman Catholic missionaries, who came soon afterwards, reported the existence of a great number of petty kingdoms. Neither the Mikado nor the Shogun was the real ruler of the country. It was at the mercy of war-lords, who stormed one another's castles and seized one another's lands, when they could. This disunion was brought to an end by three remarkable generals, who seemed to have been born to make a nation of the Japanese in the first century of their contact with Europeans. Their names were Nobunaga, Hideyoshi and Iyeyasu. It has been said that the first of these quarried the stones for the new Japan, the second rough dressed them, and the third fitted them into their proper places.

Nobunaga was a fighting landlord, "very private and secret in his designs", who scorned religion, esteemed justice and hated treason. By the vigour of his military discipline he built up such a strong army that he greatly increased his own lands, and so impressed the Mikado that he was invited to name a Shogun. He was himself appointed Vice-Shogun and remained the real power. In his new position he struck his enemies hard and usually struck but once. At last, in 1582, trapped in a temple by a

traitor, he set fire to the building and ended his life in the honourable way, by opening his abdomen with a sword (commonly called *hari-kiri*, correctly *seppuku*). Vengeance swiftly overtook the betrayer at the hands of the dead man's general Hideyoshi, who nominated a puppet Shogun and became Regent himself; his humble birth did not permit him to receive a higher title.

Hideyoshi had the stuff in him of which empire-builders are made, but he was not successful in wars undertaken against Korea. His mission was to unite the Japanese, not to extend their boundaries. In 1587 he was a party to one of those trifling incidents that sometimes change the course of World History. A Spanish pilot was boasting of the magnitude of the empire of Phillip II. Upon being asked how Spain had come by her vast possessions, he replied that the missionaries went first, and the soldiers of the empire followed hard after. Hideyoshi, filled with suspicion, ordered twenty-six Christians to be crucified, six Spaniards and twenty Japanese converts. He died the next year, but the missions were doomed.

The last of these three strong men, Iyeyasu, now came into office, but, as usual, he was obliged to fight for recognition. It is said that 190,000 men took part in the battle of Sekigahara, 1600, that made him both wealthy and all-powerful. In 1603 he was appointed Shogun, at the same time that James VI of Scotland became I of England. In the years following, when the Stuart kings were quarrelling with Parliament and driving the Puritans to America, the Roman Catholic missionaries were being expelled from Japan.

At first Christianity had been well received. St. Francis Xavier, one of the original Jesuits, had preached with great success from 1549 to 1551. Others arrived soon afterwards, Spanish Franciscans and Dominicans, and Portuguese Jesuits. Unhappily they did not present a united front. There was ill feeling between Spanish and Portuguese, and

even between Dominicans and Franciscans of the same race. To aggravate this evil, Dutch traders, who in those days were especially bitter against Roman Catholics, spread alarming reports of Spain's activities. An English pilot also called attention to the presence of a Spanish ship making a nautical survey of Japanese coasts; he said that in Europe this would be regarded as a hostile act.



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

MT. FUJI, BY HOKUSAI (1760-1849)

In 1612 the Franciscans were put down and churches and houses of the Jesuits destroyed. In 1614 an edict was issued for the extermination of Christianity in Japan. Priests were deported and native converts banished to the northern part of the country. After 1617 such priests as had not departed were beheaded. In 1637 it was the turn of the Portuguese traders to be expelled, who had boasted of their profits and of their intention to make silver as common in Macao as in the Jerusalem of Solomon. In 1639 the ban was put upon all foreigners by the following edict: "For the future let none, so long as the sun illumines the

world, presume to sail to Japan, not even in the quality of ambassadors, and this declaration is never to be revoked on pain of death." This was, of course, after Iyeyasu's death, who passed away in 1616, but it was his policy.

To this edict an exception was made in favour of the Dutch, who had first arrived in 1600, but pursued no missionary activities. They were permitted to occupy a tiny island in the bay of Nagasaki upon condition that they should make no sign of Christianity, even refraining from praying and singing. These were harsh terms, and they were not mitigated in practice, but crews of the ships of other nations were repulsed without mercy, even when vessels were damaged and when men were in need of fresh water to drink.

The English might have enjoyed superior privileges if they had not blundered. They were, as usual, late comers, because the first of their ships, the *Clove,* arrived only in 1610. The instructions of the captain were to secure trading rights and a bit of land upon which to erect warehouses and dwellings. In 1613 Iyeyasu offered to grant the request, provided that a site was chosen at Yedo (Tokyo), where the revenues from customs would benefit his own purse. He even offered the freedom of all Japanese ports in time of storm, and, what is more astonishing, the right of holding court to deal with offences against the law committed by seamen or other Englishmen. The self-willed captain, however, took the advice of the Dutch traders, who urged him to choose a site close to their own, at Hirado in the bay of Nagasaki. Thereupon, by cutting prices, they proceeded to elbow the English out of business, which they did within ten years. This mistake of the English captain helped Japan to become and remain a hermit state.

For two hundred years no foreigner was welcome within the limits of their country. While reflecting upon this unfriendliness it must be remembered that no Anglo-Saxon country to-day is willing to receive additions to the Japanese population they already have.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE GRAND MONARCHY IN FRANCE
THE SECOND COLONIAL EMPIRE IN AMERICA
NEW FRANCE

Forerunners of the Grand Monarchy—Thrifty Policies of Henry IV.

Richelieu and Mazarin.—Increase of Royal Power.

Louis XIV, the Grand Monarch.—Talents of Louis XIV—Servility of the Nobles—The Palaces of Versailles—Diligence of the King—His Success an Unwholesome Example—Decline of the French Monarchy.

The Second Colonial Empire—New France.—Magnificent Colonial Plans in North America—Difficulty of French Colonial Enterprises—The Gulf of St. Lawrence—The Abundance of Living Things—The Early Cod-Fisheries—A Seasonal Industry—Origin of the Fur-Trade—Development of the Fur-Trade—Late Beginnings of Agriculture—Indian Wars—The Fumbling of the Government—Large Estates on the St. Lawrence River—Growth of Imperial Ideas—Obstacles to French Plans.

In Europe the seventeenth century is remarkable for the long and brilliant reign of Louis XIV (1643-1715), known as the Grand Monarch. As it was said in Japan that Nobunaga mixed the dough, Hideyoshi baked the cake, and Iyeyasu ate it, so in the case of Louis it may be said that others laid the foundations of the power and glory which he inherited and enjoyed. Already in the sixteenth century Henry IV (1553-1610) had diminished the importance of the nobles and increased the prosperity of the people and the power of the Crown. He imposed taxes arbitrarily, but collected them with an honesty rare in those days. He introduced the silk industry and promoted the manufacture of tapestries, cloth and glass-ware. He improved the canals, which were very important, the roads being extremely bad. He founded a school for training army officers and established a regular division of artillery, very useful for pounding down the walls of castles. By the Edict of Nantes (1598) he gave freedom of worship to the Hugenots or

French Protestants; thus his country enjoyed immunity from religious strife at a time when Protestants and Roman Catholics in the German States (Thirty Years' War, 1618-1648) were cutting one another's throats and plundering one another's cities.

Richelieu and Mazarin

Louis XIII, son of Henry IV, was not a strong monarch, but his mother found a strong minister for him in Cardinal Richelieu. This pale, dignified ecclesiastic had thrust himself into the court through sheer force of personality. Even the king, it is said, quailed before the hard, resolute gaze of his unwavering eyes. His frame was slight and his health was poor, but it seemed as if the energy that was denied to his body had been transferred to his mind and will. It was his choice to exercise his own power by making the king more powerful. Although a Cardinal of the Church himself, he wore down the prestige of the Roman Catholic Emperor (Holy Roman Empire) by aiding the German Protestant States against him. He even invoked the aid of the dashing young Lutheran king of Sweden, Gustavus Adolphus. At home he weakened the nobility by ordering the destruction of castles that were not necessary for defence against invasion. In Paris he founded the French Academy (1635), a sort of High Court of Letters, which afterwards published the first dictionary of the French language, and still flourishes to-day.

At the time of his death in 1642 Richelieu had a successor chosen and trained in the person of Cardinal Mazarin, an Italian soldier of fortune who prized his red robes for the power they gave him. He was the heir of all his master's policies. He exalted the French king by wearing down his enemies on the Flanders frontier, on the Rhine, in Italy and Spain. The special target of his designs was, of course, the Hapsburgs in Vienna, the Holy Roman Emperors. It was during the term of his ministry that the famous Peace of Westphalia was made, which terminated

the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648); this war was a series of conflicts between Catholics and Protestants in Central Europe. At one time or another it involved Swedes, Danes, Dutch, French, Germans, Austrians and Spanish. By the terms of the Peace some 300 German princes became independent of the Emperor, to whom little was left but a shadow of his former power outside of his own possessions. These were still extensive enough, although he had lost 40,000 square miles of territory.

In France also Mazarin pursued Richelieu's policies; he destroyed more castles, especially those possessing strong towers, which were a threat to the liberty of nearby towns. He employed men of the middle class, who were more likely than nobles to be faithful to the king. He terminated a Spanish war by a satisfactory peace and arranged that the eldest of the Spanish princesses should be the bride of Louis XIV. Thus the stage was all set for the reign of the young king, by this time twenty-three years of age. He had become king when he was five, in 1643.



Louis XIV, the "Grand Monarch"

Louis XIV, the Grand Monarch

Louis XIV fitted into the place created for him by Henry IV, Richelieu and Mazarin as if the powers of nature and destiny had conspired together to fashion both his person and his character to this very end. He possessed the royal graces of manner to an extraordinary degree, dignity of carriage, poise, tact, courtesy and domination. It was said of him by the distinguished Englishman Bolingbroke

that "if he was not the greatest king, he was the best actor of majesty, at least, that ever filled a throne." An old painting represents him in voluminous royal robes, wearing an enormous wig, of which the ringlets fall about his shoulders; such is his mien and the expression of his face that none would dare to regard him but as a ruler of men. The truth is, however, that his intellect was ordinary. Had he possessed mentality of a higher type, he might have displayed less serenity and self-confidence.

Louis believed in himself because he believed in the divine right of kings. He thought that the majesty of monarchs was "an image of the grandeur of God". For the pageantry of court life, the way had been well prepared by Richelieu and Mazarin. The nobles were no longer feudal barons ruling over their subject flocks; the stronger castles had been knocked down, and the king encouraged the proprietors to live in Versailles, the new suburb of Paris, where he fixed his court. He gave them land upon which to build their palaces. He expected them to be present at the palace in relays while he was dressing in the morning. It was considered an honour to be allowed to hand him his towel or his shirt. By the time that he had finished dressing it was expected that hundreds would be waiting to participate in the morning reception. Nobles vied with one another at meals for the privilege of handing him a clean table napkin. They were rewarded for this obsequiousness, not by employment, but by gifts and pensions. He wished them to be indebted to himself for favours, but was unwilling to be indebted to them for services of state. He preferred to employ men of the middle class.

He built his palace and gardens at Versailles because he disliked Paris. Stormy scenes had been enacted there during his childhood, and vulgar people from the street had thrust their way into the royal bed-chambers and taken a view of him in bed. At Versailles the air was not only more pleasant, but everyone treated him with the deference due to

a great king. Tourists still resort there by thousands to view the gilded apartments of this bygone royalty, the dance hall, the banqueting hall, and the hall of mirrors. They still marvel at the gardens, the park and the fountains. Nevertheless, the whole scene is somewhat flat, gaudy and

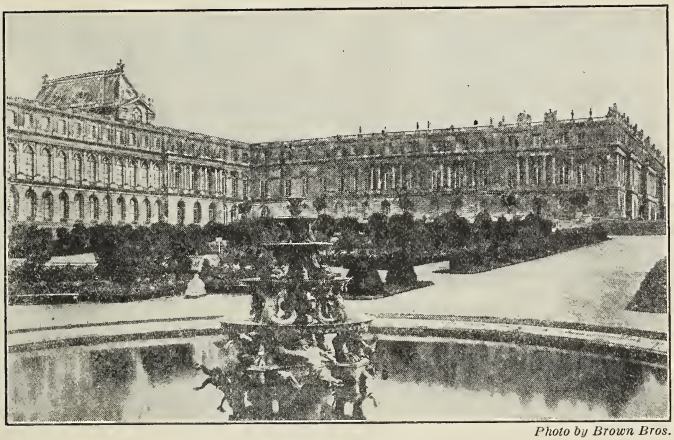


Photo by Brown Bros.

VERSAILLES

Part of the great palace of Louis XIV

disappointing. Formerly believed to be grand creations of gardener and architect, the park and palace are really much less imposing than the ancient summer residences of Chinese emperors, which tourists also visit to-day to behold the elegant lagoons, bridges, and pavilions.

With all his vanity and ostentation, Louis XIV was very industrious. After Mazarin's death he was his own first minister and gave exclusive attention to the business of government for at least five hours per day. Upon pressing business of state, men were at liberty to approach him at any time. His army was no feudal levy, mustered for short campaigns, but a standing force of 300,000. His generals


160°
140°
120°
100°
80°
60°
40°
20°
0°
30°
40°
60°
20°
0°
ARCTIC CIRCLE
TROPIC OF CANCER
EQUATOR
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Rupert's Land
Hudson's Bay Co.
1670
Quebec
Montreal
FRANCE
ACADIA
NEW ENGLAND
NEW NETHERLAND
NEW YORK, 1664
LOUISIANA
VIRGINIA
FLORIDA
NEW SPAIN
MEXICO
BAHAMAS
Caribbean Sea
GUIANA
GUIANA
GUIANA
PERU
CHILE
BRAZIL
La Plata
Str. of Magellan
AZORES
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
ENGLAND
FRANCE
HOLLAND
MADEIRA
CANARY IS.
CAPE VERDE IS.
Held by Dutch, 1630-1655
Wms Eng. Co., N.Y.
160° 140° 120° Longitude 100° West 80° from 60° Greenwich 40° 20° 0°


40°
60°
80°
100°
120°
140°
160°
180°
80°
60°
40°
20°
0°
20°
40°
60°
ARCTIC CIRCLE
S I B E R I A
(Colonized by Russians before 1700)
RUSSIA
A S I A
PERSIA
Nanking
CHINA
P A C I F I C
TROPIC OF CANCER
ARABIA
INDIA
Bombay
Goa
Calicut
Madras
CEYLON
PHILIPPINE IS.
O C E A N
SPICE IS.
EQUATOR
Malindi
INDIAN
EAST INDIES
MADAGASCAR
OCEAN
AUSTRALIA
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
NEW ZEALAND
40° Longitude 60° East 80° from 100° Greenwich 120° 140° 160° 180°

T 1700 A.D.

made war for him on every front, against the Dutch, Austrians and Spaniards. His minister Colbert weeded out thieves from the civil service and collected huge tax lists more strictly than before. The navy was enlarged and it made the French flag known from the West Indies to the East Indies. It was during his reign that the plan for a huge colonial empire in North America was projected (page 448).

In spite of the glamour of the reign of Louis XIV, his example was not a wholesome one. Fortune prepared for him a stage upon which he was marvellously qualified to play his high role. The course of history in Europe had previously permitted to Philip II of Spain and to Charles V of Austria to play similar roles. Louis surpassed their performances by virtue of his superb gifts as a royal actor. It was, of course, foreordained that he would be imitated. His suburban palace of Versailles was reproduced at Potsdam, outside of Berlin, by the king of Prussia and at the Peterhof, outside of St. Petersburg, by the emperor of Russia. This, however, was not the whole mischief: his career intensified the rivalries of kings and nations. Austria, Spain and France had each in turn climbed to a supreme place in the European group of races. Why should not Prussia and Russia have their turn in the days to come? The peoples of Europe have paid dearly for the ambitions of their kings.

Perhaps it would have been better for Louis XIV and for France alike, if he had not lived so long. His reign is the longest on record in the annals of Europe, seventy-two years (1643-1715). Grand Monarchs should always be young, handsome, and prosperous. The power of the kings of France had reached its highest point and begun its decline before Louis passed away. It had slowly climbed to that eminence through the genius of a series of strong and prudent rulers, Henry IV, Richelieu and Mazarin. Its decline, beginning in the middle years of Louis XIV, was

destined to be rapid, as is usual. In 1685 he let loose religious strife by revoking the Edict of Nantes. In the Seven Years' War, France lost her colonial empires in both North America and India. At the end of the eighteenth century came the French Revolution (1789), and in the nineteenth the French people were compelled to build anew from the foundations and to restore their government on a republican basis.

The Second Colonial Empire—New France

The memory of Louis XIV is preserved in America in the name of Louisiana, and the survival of the French tongue in New Orleans and Quebec is a monument of the ambition and the enterprise of his countrymen in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The fact that this enterprise met with failure should not obscure the truth that no programme of colonial empire was more superbly planned, more courageously prosecuted and more heroically defended. The dream of Cecil Rhodes in the nineteenth century of connecting a British South Africa with a British Egypt was not more truly imperial than the dream of the French that they might join up by a series of French settlements the gulf of St. Lawrence with the gulf of Mexico.

The marvellous speed with which the Spaniards spread out their colonial empire fan-wise from the West Indies to all the adjacent parts of North and South America doubtlessly stimulated their French neighbours and rivals to plan a similar project where they might find an opening for their energies. The story of the French in the New World, however, bears little resemblance to the story of Spain. It has been the lot of the French in colonial activities always to attempt the more difficult tasks, first in North America and later in Central Africa and Asia. In their annals there are no characters like Cortes and Pizarro, plundering the barbarian gold of helpless Indian emperors, but only the

patient toil of the explorer and the slow evolution of trade. In North America the cod-fisheries came first, then the fur-trade, then exploration, next the attempt to found agricultural colonies, and, last of all, imperial ideas.

The first scene was laid in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. No other such gulf exists in the whole world. To think of it as the mouth of a mighty river discharging into the salt ocean the fresh waters of a distant chain of giant lakes is sufficient to challenge the imagination, but it is more than this. It is the meeting place of still greater though invisible rivers. From the south comes the Gulf Stream, warm from the tropics. From the north comes the Labrador Current, ice-cold, but teeming with food for fishes. Where these diverse waters mingle with one another, the airs above them mingle. The moist, warm winds from the south meet the cold airs of the north, and a thick mantle of fog settles over all.

When the prying white man first found his way into the gulf it teemed with hosts of living things both great and small. Whales of several kinds, herds of walruses with great ivory tusks, playful porpoises, and sleek seals; myriads of sea birds frequented the islands; myriads of wild pigeons frequented the shores. The gulf was one of nature's rookeries, more abounding in life than any tropical sea.

Most important of all, however, was the cod-fish. Where the ocean bottom had been heaved to form the Grand Banks the cod had found its natural feeding ground. Early explorers told fabulous tales of the fish being so innumerable that they impeded the progress of the ships. This incredible news was soon carried to the hungry cities of fish-eating Europe. Single vessels, and then scores, and then hundreds set out to reap the unharvested fields. The fleets of the Spaniards that sought the Spanish Main in the sixteenth century were a mere fraction of the number that sought the

cod in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. One traveller reported five hundred fishing vessels in a single summer.

This industry was long a seasonal business. The fleets arrived in early summer, constructed bunk houses on shore and platforms for dressing and drying the fish. The captains were tyrants and the work was pushed with relentless energy. The men went out in the morning with small boats and returned at night with their catch. Until the day's catch had been cleaned and salted not a bite was eaten. This was the daily programme until the vessel was filled. At last with thirty or forty thousand fish they sailed away with equal haste to be in time for the Lenten market in Paris or Lisbon.

Out of the fishing arose the fur-trade. It was a side-line at first. On stormy days the fishermen tempted the Indian with knives, fish-hooks or kettles to part with his furs, but brandy was soon found to thaw his reluctance more quickly. He was not yet used to trading. It had been his custom to save only such skins as he needed for his own use. It was necessary to teach him to collect furs for profit. Only by degrees did he become a trapper as well as a hunter. The American fur-trade was a gradual development. In the course of time the trade in cod-fish was to pass to the English settlements around Boston, but the fur-trade was to be the mainstay of New France.

It developed slowly and it followed the St. Lawrence River. The first regular trading post was at Tadoussac, the next at Quebec, and the third at Three Rivers. Montreal was not founded until 1642, when the Spaniards had been ruling in Mexico and Peru for a century and more. Even after this event the capital of the fur-trade remained in Three Rivers. At first the fur-traders clung to their forts. The Indians were bribed and persuaded to visit them there. In the course of time the traders themselves were forced to venture farther afield. They ascended the Ottawa River, and reached Lake Huron by way of Lake Nipissing and

French River. They established trading posts along this route as far as Sault Ste. Marie. In the seventeenth century two fur-traders reached Hudson Bay, by an overland route without permission of the French governor, and, offended by his anger, furnished to Charles II of England the precious information that led to the formation of the famous Hudson's Bay Company in 1670. It was not until the eighteenth century that the French reached the Canadian Prairies.

The occupation of farming followed slowly in the wake of fishing and trading. There were many good reasons for this. It was not possible, as in the West Indies, to turn cattle loose and let them multiply. In the harsh climate of the north there was no plant to flourish marvellously like the sugar-cane, tobacco or cotton of the south. For a long time it was not possible even to grow sufficient wheat for the settlers' needs; both France and England were compelled to feed their colonists for a long time. Only the cod-fish and the furs made the settlements worth while. It required almost two centuries of time to breed a race of self-reliant pioneers, willing and able to cut down forests, build log-cabins, plant and reap small fields, and endure all the arduous labour and privations of life on the forbidding frontiers.

Another obstacle was Indian wars. The Indians of the north had never been trained to slavish labour like the natives of Mexico and Peru. On both sides of Lake Erie and Lake Ontario corn was grown, but the women did all the cultivating. These lakes and the St. Lawrence were the dividing line between hostile tribes. The French were forced to take sides. They happened to choose the weaker side, that of the Hurons, who were nearer. The Iroquois, whose home lay in what is now New York State, pursued the Hurons to their homes and finally almost exterminated them. They became allies, first of the Dutch, then of the English on the Atlantic Coast, and continued to vent their

old grudges against the French of Quebec. These troubles ended after two centuries in 1763, when Canada became British.

Still another reason for the slow development of New France was the fumbling of the home government. Colonial development was in the experimental stage. The kings divided the lands of which they knew nothing among friends and trading companies who knew little more. None of these succeeded in bringing out settlers and building up farming communities as they had undertaken to do. The first really successful farms were reclaimed, not from the forest, but from the sea. These were situated on the east side of the Bay of Fundy, where wide, fertile, treeless flats required only dikes to transfrom them into rich fields of golden grain. The newcomers were more habituated to the labour of the plough than to the wielding of the axe. The first of these settlements was called Port Royal, now Annapolis, founded in 1605.

It was not until 1663 that a king of France began to govern Quebec through a representative of his own. This was Louis XIV, then very young but an enterprising and ambitious monarch from the first. Down to this time the settlers numbered only 2,500 all told. A hundred years later, when Canada became British in 1763, there were 69,000. During this century lands were distributed along both sides of the St. Lawrence between Quebec and Montreal. The unit was a large estate, intended to be divided into small farms and assigned to tenants. Domestic animals were introduced from Europe. Trade was encouraged both with the mother-country and with the West Indies. In spite of continual wars with the Iroquois Indians and the English Colonies, New France was growing and becoming moderately prosperous.

The plan of a colonial empire was evolved by degrees, and very slowly. It began with that will-o'-the-wisp, the quest of a sea-way to India and China. Every American

water-way, whether bay or river, was first explored with this hope in mind. Jacques Cartier ascended the St. Lawrence in 1535, and visited the sites where Quebec and Montreal were founded later. Then a long gap, and Samuel de Champlain arrived in 1603; he possessed scientific training and made good maps. By 1615 he had ascended the Ottawa, crossed to Lake Huron and returned to Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence. In 1673 a trader named Joliet, accompanied by a Jesuit priest, reached the Mississippi by way of Sault Ste. Marie, but stopped short of exploring it to its mouth. In 1681 the daring explorer La Salle followed the great river all the way to the Gulf of Mexico. It was a great disappointment to find that its discharge was not into the South Sea, but La Salle's exploration gave birth to that superbly conceived plan of a French inland empire in North America. This was designed to embrace the centre of the continent from Quebec to Louisiana.

This gigantic plan was no more important than the actual accomplishment of the Spanish in South America, but it was inconceivably more difficult. Both nature and kings were against it. The kings consumed their resources of men and money upon foolish dynastic wars in Europe, and nature had willed after all that the new world of North America should be conquered by the axe and the plough rather than by the musket. A few forts along the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers were not sufficient to balk the good fortune and courage of Great Britain in the eighteenth century, nor later to restrain the expanding energy of squadrons of American pioneers pent up behind the Alleghanies. It was the will of the gods that France should build her colonial empire, not in America, but in Africa, close to her own ports, and at a later time.

CHAPTER XXXIX

GROWTH OF PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND

The Example of English Parliamentary Government—The Stuart Kings at Odds with Puritan England—Execution of Charles I—The Dictatorship of Oliver Cromwell—Reign of Charles II—Unpopularity of James II—Revolution of 1688—Accession of William of Orange—The Bill of Rights, 1689—Origin of the Cabinet System—Origin of the Office of Prime Minister—Importance of the Union of England and Scotland—Tendency to Strive for Natural Boundaries—Survey of the Rest of Europe.

The First British Colonial Empire.—Rivalry of Protestants and Roman Catholics in North America—Limits of the English Colonies—The Boston Puritans—Exclusiveness of the Puritans—The Dutch in New York State—Origin of New Jersey—Origin of Pennsylvania—The Pennsylvania Pioneers—Origin of Delaware and Maryland—Beginnings of Virginia—Character of the Settlers—Self-Government in Virginia—Origin of the Carolinas—Importance of the Hudson's Bay Company—Georgia, a Debtor's Colony—Survey of the Colonies.

In 1603, upon the death of Queen Elizabeth, Scotland and England were joined by a personal union under a single king, James Stuart. In 1707 they were united under a single Parliament. The intervening century witnessed a continuous development of parliamentary government in Great Britain, which was to become no less an example to the rest of Europe than the Grand Monarchy of Louis XIV. Liberty-loving men looked as steadily to London as vain and ambitious monarchs looked to Versailles.

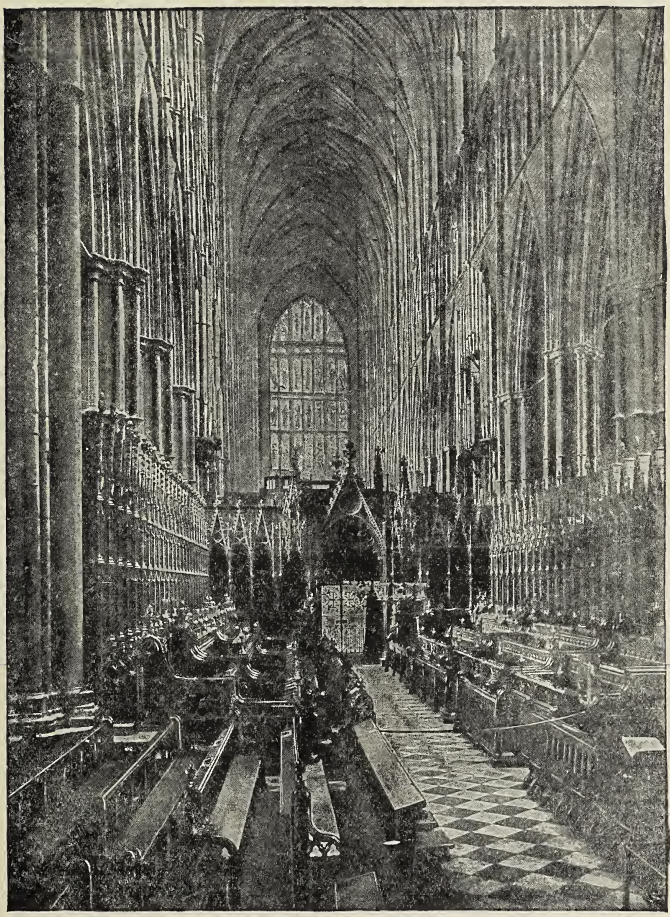
James I of England talked of "divine right" and would dearly have loved to be a real king, but he was utterly lacking in the graces of manner that enabled Louis XIV to play that high part. Charles I, son of James, had the graces but lacked the mentality. Both were stout upholders of orthodoxy according to the rites of the Church of England, but the most enterprising people of the realm were Puritans of one kind or another. Some wished to simplify the services of the Church, some wished to abolish bishops and

have only elders (presbyters), and some wished to worship apart from the Established Church. All of them, however, were great readers of the Bible, and preferred an enlightened conscience to all other authority. The truth is that the noble translation of the Bible published in 1611 under the patronage of King James really accelerated the movement that drove the Stuarts from the throne.

Taxes unauthorized by Parliament were especially galling to Bible-reading Puritans, and Charles I ignored Parliament. Opposition became a matter of conscience, and where conscience was involved the Puritan could not yield. Supporters of the king were called Cavaliers and their opponents Roundheads. Civil war began in 1642, and proved disastrous for the embattled Puritans until the genius of Oliver Cromwell manifested itself. Like Othman the Turk, he created a small body of devoted soldiers who under no circumstances thought of retreat. These "Ironsides" decided the day on every field, and Cromwell knew well how to seize the fruits of victory. The king was made prisoner in 1646, and in 1649 beheaded, an event that sent a thrill of horror through the courts of Europe. England became for a time an outcast among the nations.

The opinion of Europe mattered nothing to Cromwell, who believed in his "divine right" no less than James or Charles. The new government was called the Commonwealth and lasted until 1660. Cromwell's title was Lord Protector, but the ancient Romans would have called him Dictator. He was the government, and it came to an end two years after his death. He had waged a successful war with Holland and made the name of England feared abroad. At home his administration was vigorous and honest, but the people did not like it. The English have always been partial to kings, provided they respect the wishes of Parliament.

The restoration of the Stuarts in 1660 was the signal for the resumption of all the gaieties of court life which the



INTERIOR OF WESTMINSTER ABBEY

The national shrine of the British people; it contains the tombs of Edward the Confessor (1004-1066) and many other kings and famous men.

Puritans had suspended. Charles II was either born with tact or had learned it in exile, but his sojourn at the court of Louis XIV, the Grand Monarch, was a poor preparation for governing Puritan England. Only his charming, conciliatory manners carried him through. Not until after his death did it become known that he had received the sacrament for the dying from a Roman Catholic priest.

His brother James II made no pretence of concealing his faith. He was both an avowed Roman Catholic and an avowed autocrat. These two avowals offended all parties, Puritans and Anglicans. The latter feared for the supremacy of the Church of England, and the former feared both for their faith and for Parliament. The birth of a prince to his Roman Catholic queen brought prompt revolt and James fled to the continent. This was the Revolution of 1688. The reign had lasted only three years.

The crown was bestowed by Parliament upon William, Prince of Orange, ruler of Holland and husband of Mary, a Protestant daughter of James II. In 1689 Parliament set down in writing the principles upon which it was determined that the country should be governed for all time to come, the so-called "Bill of Rights", in reality a new Constitution. It declared in specific terms the supremacy of Parliament: without its sanction the king was to levy no taxes and maintain no armies; members were to have freedom of discussion and immunity from imprisonment; all accused persons were to be tried by juries of their equals; and no one was to be exempt from the penalties of the laws. In the same year an Act of Toleration was passed, which granted freedom of worship to those who dissented from the doctrines and rites of the Church of England, that is, to Dissenters or Noncomformists; from the benefits of this act Roman Catholics were still excepted. Even down to the nineteenth century there was no office under the Crown open to men who refused to accept the communion according to the rites of the Church of England.

It was under William of Orange that the "cabinet system" of government began in England. The new king was neutral in English politics; he chose Whigs for his advisers when Whigs were willing to co-operate with him, and he chose Tories when Whigs failed to co-operate. The Whigs comprised the classes which had supported Oliver Cromwell, that is, farmers and merchants; the Tories were chiefly members of the Church of England, especially the landed gentry, who were engaged neither in business nor in the professions. The office of Prime Minister did not develop until the eighteenth century, when the accession of George I, who spoke no English, made it necessary to delegate his authority. Precedent, however, is strong among the English people, and what was begun under foreign kings, William and George, was continued because it proved to be to the advantage of Parliament and the people.

It remains to mention only one more incident of this time to complete the list of reforms that prepared the British for leadership in Europe and in the affairs of the world. This was the Act of Union of 1707, by which Scotland and England were united under a single Parliament. Within little more than fifty years after this event the British colonial empire was founded in India and America. The addition of Scotch manhood to English armies and to English mercantile enterprises was indispensable for the formation and the maintenance of the British Empire. By the Act of Union and by the development of responsible government Great Britain attained to a position that enabled her to weather triumphantly the storms that were brewing on the continent.

The union of England and Scotland was an incident in the general movement in the seventeenth century towards the establishment of natural boundaries for national states. It has already been mentioned that Louis XIV endeavoured to extend France to the Pyrenees and the Rhine. Holland, long included with Belgium under the term Netherlands,

was unfortunate in possessing no natural boundaries. The wars in which the Dutch were involved are too bewildering to rehearse. It must suffice to state that by the Treaty of Westphalia, which concluded the Thirty Years' War, 1618-1648, the independence of Holland was recognized. Furthermore, by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668, Spain retained the greater part of Belgium (Spanish Netherlands). This was in defiance of geography.

The strong countries of this century, it may have been inferred, were Spain, France and England. Austria was being too incessantly hammered by the French on the west and by the Turks on the east to display much enterprise. In 1683 the Sultan Mohammed IV laid siege to Vienna itself, and would probably have captured it but for the timely aid of the Polish cavalry under the famous king, John Sobieski. Poland was at this time a large independent state surrounding East Prussia on three sides and separating it from West Prussia. The Turkish Empire in Europe was at its maximum, including the greater part of Hungary and the whole valley of the Danube. Russia was slumbering, nominally part of Europe but really more Tartar in character than European. Sweden possessed a huge territory on both sides of the Baltic, including both Finland and lands to the south of it. Denmark and Norway were united and quite separate from Sweden.

In the eighteenth century portentous changes were to take place in central and eastern Europe, which will be sketched in Part V (pages 473-486). Prussia, Russia and Austria will then be added to the list of European powers.

The First British Colonial Empire

In World History few facts can be claimed to rival this in the weight of its consequences, that in North America a chain of Protestant English colonies was founded between Roman Catholic New France in the north and Roman Catholic New Spain to the south. It is also supremely

important to bear in mind that the English people were in rebellion against their kings while these colonies were being born. The ancestors of the American people were not aware of it at the time, but the seeds of rebellion were in their souls already. It was only necessary for two or three generations of their children to grow up in the transforming influence of the New World for this instinct of independence to assert itself. The British connection endured only until such time as Protestant colonies no longer feared Roman Catholic France and Spain.

England's claim to the Atlantic coast of North America was based upon the voyages of the Cabots, who in 1497 and 1498 had followed the shores from Nova Scotia to Chesapeake Bay. Both French and English claimed Acadia, that is, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. At the southern end of the coast the Spanish had a town called St. Augustine in Florida. Between these two limits those scattered and disunited settlements were founded which in the course of a century and a half were to become the United States of North America. The title of New England was claimed by the Boston group of colonies alone, but it describes Virginia and the Carolinas equally well. In the long run it could have been aptly applied to the whole Atlantic strip beween New France and New Spain. In this account the colonies are described in order from north to south, and not in the order of their foundation.

The great city of New York has no place in the picture of early New England. The most important town was Boston, the trade of which once penetrated to all seas. It was a product of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, founded in 1628 by English Puritans. Unlike many other settlers, they were neither paupers nor criminals, but people of property and education. The first group was followed by others in 1630, bringing horses, cattle, agricultural implements and household furniture. They had been preceded by the Pilgrims in 1620, who came in a boat called the

Mayflower and landed at Plymouth. Both Pilgrims and Puritans were seeking religious liberty in the New World. They chose the chances of life in the American forests rather than submit to the rule of the Church of England. They believed that the Bible was the only law of life, and that God, not the king, was the head of the Church. These high ideals were not uncombined with Yankee shrewdness. The Puritans were organized as a Company, but they did not leave their charter in London. They brought that precious document with them, being determined from the first to govern themselves.



Map of English Colonies in America

In the Bay Colony, as Massachusetts was called, the State was the Church and the Church was the State. The colonists were utterly intolerant. Only church members were allowed to vote. The laws prescribed not only what each man and woman should do but also what they should think. Those who refused to conform were driven out. Thus came into being new States such as Connecticut, Rhode Island and New Hampshire, which were founded by rebellious groups. Quakers were especially persecuted because

they would neither take off their hats nor bow down to any man. Many of them were publicly whipped, a few were hanged, and all were driven away. This harshness of the Puritans created a class of settlers who at the time seemed outcasts but became dauntless pioneers of the forest frontiers.

New York State was at first called New Netherland and New York City was called New Amsterdam. Manhattan Island, where the city stood, was bought from the Indians for twenty-four dollars' worth of beads and other trinkets in 1636. The Dutch claimed the valley of the Hudson River by virtue of its discovery by Henry Hudson in 1609. They were chiefly interested in the fur-trade at first, but prosperous Hollanders took up large estates and farmed on a grand scale. They built substantial homes for themselves and left their impress on the country all the way from New York to Albany. In 1664 an English fleet suddenly made its appearance and without bloodshed took possession of the colony. New Amsterdam became New York. The Hollanders became loyal subjects of the king and many fought for him in the revolution that was to follow.

New York was named after the Duke of York, brother of Charles II of England. In 1673 the Duke sold a block off the lower part of his domain to two friends. One of these had been governor of the Island of Jersey in the English Channel, and so he called the new settlement New Jersey. The location was very desirable and attracted English families from Massachusetts, Dutch from New York and Quakers from Pennsylvania. For a time it was divided into East Jersey and West Jersey, the Quakers owning the latter. In the English colonies, however, division was often followed by union, and the two parts became one again in 1702.

The now rich and populous State of Pennsylvania owes its origin, like the Plymouth and Bay Colonies in Massachusetts, to religious persecution in Old England. English

settlers did not rush to America like the Spanish adventurers to Mexico and Peru. They were driven out by the inhuman treatment of the government and their fellow-Englishmen. Quakers became outcasts because they believed that war was murder, and because they refused to take off their hats to any human being. For these persecuted people William Penn founded a refuge in the region west of the Delaware River. It was given him by Charles II in satisfaction of a debt owed to his father, who had been an admiral of the fleet. It was situated in the great forest belt of North America and received the name of Pennsylvania, "Penn's Woods".

Under the generous rule of William Penn the colony prospered and its chief town, Philadelphia, became the most progressive in America. It was the great rival of Boston, and both of them prospered in advance of New York. Penn offered religious freedom, mild laws and cheap land. These advantages, rare in those days, attracted not only Quakers but also Protestant Germans and Scotch-Irish, none of whom were welcome in New England or Virginia. The result was that a race of pioneers was bred in Penn's Woods who furnished the shock troops for the conquest of the American continent. They spread southward into Virginia and the Carolinas, over the mountains into Kentucky and Tennessee, and even as far as Missouri. It was industrious, religious folk such as these, hounded out of England, Ireland and Germany, and excluded from most of the English colonies, who by sheer necessity learned the hard lessons of frontier life and became the first true Americans.

Penn's grant was dated 1681. Other settlements round about were older. Delaware was founded by Swedes in 1638, who were soon absorbed by neighbours of different race. Maryland was even older. It was called after Queen Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I of England, who made a liberal grant of land to Lord Baltimore in 1634. It was planned to be a refuge for Roman Catholics, but the land

had been taken from Virginia. This caused trouble and led to bickerings, because the Virginians belonged to the Church of England. A later Lord Baltimore recovered control by becoming a Protestant, and his family retained possession until the Revolution. Their name is preserved in the city of Baltimore.

Virginia was the stronghold of the English gentleman and of the Church of England in America. Strangely enough, it was founded by a branch of the same Company that founded the Plymouth Colony. The land had already been named Virginia by Sir Walter Raleigh in honour of Elizabeth, "the virgin queen", but a settlement of his at Roanoke had proved a complete failure. The first permanent settlement was named Jamestown in honour of James I of England. This was founded in 1607. The company was small, unused to labour and misled by silly hopes of finding gold. Fevers swept them away rapidly. Had it not been for the picturesque courage of one Captain John Smith they would have given up and returned home. In 1619 the key to the labour problem was discovered by the purchase of twenty negro slaves from a passing ship. Within the following ten years it was discovered that tobacco was a profitable crop, and this at once became the staple product of the colony. An earlier plan had been to grow grapes and found a wine industry.

Virginia possessed just as good a right to be called New England as the group of colonies around Boston. English country life was more nearly duplicated here than anywhere in North America. Large estates grew up with handsome houses and abundance of servants. Society was graded into classes as in England. At the head stood the Governor, because company rule had soon come to an end, and below him were arranged the rest of the people. They were seated in church according to rank. Rich men ordered their clothes from London tailors, blue broadcloth coats, velvet waistcoats, plush breeches, lace cuffs, silk hose and

low shoes with silver buckles. George Washington dressed after this fashion, and both in garb and manners would have been quite at home among English country gentlemen.

In one important respect Virginia resembled Massachusetts. It was self-governing from a very early date. The first House of Burgesses met in Jamestown only twelve years after the foundation. The fact that Governors were sent regularly from London did not alter the fact that the citizens felt perfectly capable of taking care of themselves. In later wars against the French and Indians, no English generals and no English regular troops were so reliable as the Virginia militia and General George Washington.

The Carolinas are not so old as Virginia. The region abounded in all sorts of game, both furred and feathered, and attracted many who preferred to live by their guns rather than by the plough. The name harks back to Charles I of England, but settlement dates from Charles II, a great dispenser of favours. He gave the land to titled friends, and they planned a sort of Platonic Republic with fixed classes of citizens. Some were to think and to rule, others were to work their lives away. This ideal State never existed except on paper. The people paid little heed to their Governors. The district around Charleston developed most rapidly, especially as the cultivation of cotton and indigo came into vogue. The people were trained to self-defence and self-reliance in long wars with the Tuscarora Indians, who were finally driven away entirely. The presence of hostile Indians in the rear of the colonies was one of the chief factors in transforming the settlers into true Americans.

It is a far cry from the Carolinas to Hudson Bay in the far north, but the same Charles II who bestowed the southern fields upon his noble friends made a gift to others of all the lands that drained into Hudson Bay. These lands were held for two centuries by the Hudson's Bay Company until the day when they should be absorbed by the Dominion

of Canada. A special destiny was guarding the interests of Great Britain on the North American continent.

It was not religious persecution that led to the first settlements in Georgia. It was the severe laws against debtors that prevailed in England. Such unfortunates were compelled to spend a large part of their lives in loathsome gaols. It was George II who in 1732 acceded to the desire of James Oglethorpe to establish a refuge for them in America. This resulted in the founding of Savannah in 1733. Florida in those days belonged to Spain and fighting followed. Nevertheless the colony survived. Many poor people emigrated into "Piney Georgia" from the Carolinas. The State was doomed to wait until the nineteenth century for its real prosperity.

Thus the strip of English colonies was completed between Spanish Florida on the south and French Acadia on the north. Most of the people who came there were hounded out of England, Ireland, and Europe by various kinds of injustice or misfortune. The greater part sought religious liberty; others, both humble and noble, sought refuge from debts or bankruptcy. Those who lived in the north followed the sea and the fisheries; those in the south planted tobacco and cotton. In the rear of the colonies were trained the pioneers who were to invade the western forests and the distant prairies in days to come. A century of life in the New World transformed them into Americans. Of this change they gradually became self-conscious. The kings of England had eyes but they saw not.

CHAPTER XL

FIRST STAGES OF WORLD TRADE

The Search for New Routes and Markets—The Discovery of Hudson Bay—The Foundation of the Hudson's Bay Company—The Quest of the Beaver—Magnificence of the Company—The Company's Part in World History.

THE BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY.—The Dutch East India Company—The French East India Company.

PIRACY AND PRIVATEERING.—The Age of the Pirates—The Age of the Privateers—Beginnings of the Negro Slave-Trade.

SUGAR, MOLASSES AND RUM.—The Sugar Industry—The Traffic in Rum.

In the sixteenth century world trade was still in its first stages, that is, kings and merchants were furnishing ships and money to adventurous navigators in the hope of discovering new routes to the East or of opening new ports to their vessels. The Merchant-Adventurers of London, for example, organized a company as early as the times of Henry VII of England, and Henry himself sent the Cabots, father and son, to explore the coasts of North America, although America was not yet known to be a separate continent, and had not even received a name.

The development of commerce is admirably illustrated by the history of the Hudson's Bay Company. The large and lucrative trade of the Hudson Bay region was developed in much the same way that America was revealed by successive explorers, as much by accident as by design. In 1610 three English merchants financed an expedition headed by Henry Hudson to discover the North-West Passage through the Arctic Seas to China and Japan. Hudson succeeded in reaching the bay that received his name, and sailed southward along its nearer shore, hoping to find the South Seas. Cast adrift by a rebellious crew, he perished miserably and unknown, but some of his men returned and added a little to the knowledge of geography.

Some fifty years slip by, and then in 1666 two Frenchmen, named Radisson and Groseilliers, arrived in London with luring accounts of the possibilities of the fur-trade in Hudson Bay, which they had reached by land. Thereupon the true seventeenth century stage of development began. Charles II, a generous monarch and recently restored to the throne, authorized the formation of a company correctly styled *The Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson Bay*, but commonly known by its briefer title, the *Hudson's Bay Company*. The date of the royal charter was 1670. This company outlived all other royal trading companies, and preserved the genuine atmosphere of the century in which it was founded. It received a title to all the lands of which the rivers flow into the bay, and its governors became autocratic rulers of a vast territory, of the dimensions of which the directors at first knew nothing.

The enterprise was timely. In those days all people of means, Cavaliers and Roundheads alike, wore immense felt hats, and it had lately been discovered that the beaver of the New World furnished the best of all felting furs. The trade was in its infancy but its development was rapid. The policy of the Company was to establish trading posts on the shores and to tempt the Indians to bring the precious furs and exchange them for glass beads, fish-hooks, awls, bullets, flints, powder and shot. The standard of value was a beaver skin, which bought eight bullets; a gun cost twelve beaver skins, but the price was soon increased.

The operations of the Company proved extremely profitable for the shareholders, whose directors issued their decrees from a dingy office in London, and in the course of time ruled over a greater territory than the Roman emperors of old. At its maximum their domain reached from the coast of Labrador to the Pacific Ocean. The comings and goings of its governors were accompanied by the fluttering of flags, the blare of bugles, the clattering of muskets and

the roar of cannon. Their precious furs, so cheaply purchased, were carried by brigades of dog-sleds over the snows, by brigades of canoes upon the rivers, and by brigades of horsemen on the plains. The spirit of the age of the Grand Monarchs, of the courtly Charles II and his "dear cousin", Prince Rupert, hovered over the Company throughout its history.

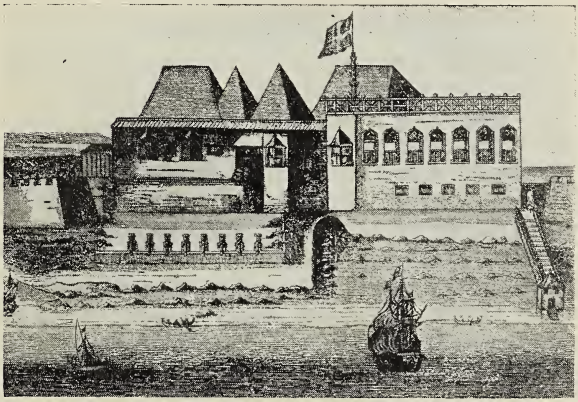
In World History, however, the Hudson's Bay Company possesses quite another importance. It preserved the northern half of the continent of North America for the British Empire. Either its agents or those of the North-West Company, which it absorbed in 1821, took possession of the Prairies and the Pacific Coast long before the older settlements in British North America were prepared for colonization in the West. When the more enterprising citizens of the expanding United States pushed their way to the far North-West, they found the region already under the protection of the British Crown. This was the far-reaching effect of a generous gift of Charles II, delivered in ignorance of what he was giving away, to men equally ignorant of what they were receiving.

The British East India Company

In this age of the great trading companies, a far more conspicuous part was played by the East India Company, reluctantly chartered by Queen Elizabeth in her cautious old age. It was rather late for the English to enter the East Indian trade, 1600, because the Portuguese, Dutch and French had preceded them, but the English were late in all colonial enterprises. All that they desired at first was a foothold on the shore where they could build warehouses and a fort to protect them. The East India Company acquired Surat on the Gulf of Cambray, and Bombay to the south of it; these were north of the Portuguese factories on the Malabar Coast. It also founded Fort St. George, afterwards Madras, on the south-east coast, and Fort William, named

after William of Orange, of which Calcutta was an outgrowth. The possession of these trading posts depended upon command of the sea. The East India Company maintained its foothold, and gradually increased its territory until the British Government took over the responsibility and added almost all of India to the British Empire.

The Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602,



An Indian Factory

and the national hostility to Roman Catholic countries like Spain and Portugal gave a decided fillip to its commercial enterprises. To this religious animosity was added the bitter hatred of the Dutch for their Spanish rulers, from whom they secured independence during this century, in 1648. In the Far East the Portuguese trading posts fell one by one to their fleets and by the middle of the century Ceylon, part of Sumatra, Java, and many productive islands had exchanged the Dutch for the Portuguese flag. There was also a Dutch West India Company, and Dutch Guiana in South America is a small legacy of its enterprises. For a score of years it looked as if Holland might acquire Brazil,

which they actually conquered, but it was surrendered in 1661.

The French first entered India in the time of the Grand Monarch, Louis XIV, who gave a charter to *La Compagnie des Indes.* This was in 1664, when Grand Monarchies were beginning to come to flower, but the French did not bestow much attention upon India until the next century. For the time being they were more interested in North America.

Piracy and Privateering

The formation of trading companies was partly due to the prevalence of piracy. Piracy had revived in the Mediterranean after the fall of the Roman Empire, and after the Arab conquests the sea was never safe for a lonely ship. The North Sea abounded in pirates during the early Middle Ages, and to keep them in check a fleet was maintained by the Hanseatic League of commercial cities. The age of piracy in the Atlantic began with the Spanish conquest of Mexico, Central and South America in the early sixteenth century. The temptation to bear down upon a Spanish treasure ship from Panama was too great to be resisted by enterprising English mariners. Partly for this reason the Spanish adopted the custom of despatching ships only in fleets under convoy of men-of-war. Even ships of these treasure fleets were sometimes caught off their guard and plundered by daring freebooters like Sir Francis Drake.

Piracy, however, was not confined to any race. There were desperate men of many races ready to go to sea, take possession of some secluded island in the West Indies, and lie in wait to seize a stray merchantman. There was also the practice of privateering, which was not unlike piracy. A privateer was a merchant ship carrying "letters of marque", by which it was authorized by its own government to seize and make a prize of ships of enemy countries. Every ship was forced to carry cannon, and every sailor was prepared to use fire-arms and wield the cutlass. The age of great navies was only dawning and the laws of the sea

were as yet unwritten. No country, as yet, was Mistress of of the Seas. Piracy flourished throughout the seventeenth century and the greater part of the eighteenth.

Along with piracy and privateering went the slave-trade. To the Portuguese belongs the ugly distinction of being the first to carry captive Negroes from the coasts of Africa to labour on the plantations of the New World. Both Portuguese and Spanish had endeavoured to enslave the American Indian, but tilling the soil was a woman's work among them and, for a man, death was preferable to it. The Negro, on the other hand, was found to be more tractable, and in addition was fitted by his origin to endure the fatigue of toil in the tropical lands of the West Indies, where the sugar industry was first found to be profitable. From the sugar plantations negro slavery spread to the tobacco district of Virginia, and later to the cotton region of the Carolinas and the Southern States. For no less than four centuries this curse continued to besmirch the name of Christianity and its legacies of evil are still existent.

Sugar, Molasses and Rum

Another product of this colonial age was the traffic in sugar, molasses and rum. When the West Indies were first settled the use of sugar in Europe was not general; honey, as in all ancient times, was the chief sweet. Sugar had been imported from the Far East by Arab traders in the Middle Ages, and the culture of the sugar-cane was introduced to Spain and Portugal, but the industry did not increase appreciably. Then it was discovered that the West Indies were admirably adapted for it. The machinery used for grinding the cane and extracting the sugar was very crude. There was little sugar and much molasses. This molasses quickly became a staple food of the poor in all colonial countries. In every general store in America from the Carolinas to Quebec the barrel of molasses became a staple part of the stock. In the north it was doled out to every settler's child, and in the south it was fed to slaves.

More profitable than the molasses was the rum that was made from it. Every sugar plantation had its distillery, and almost every ship took on a cargo of its product. It was carried to Africa to be traded for more slaves to work more plantations to grow more sugar to make more rum to buy more slaves. It was carried to Albany, Montreal and Hud-



Courtesy Canadian West Indian League, Montreal

BRINGING IN THE SUGAR CANE, BARBADOS

son Bay to bribe the Indians to bring in more furs. Every brigade of canoes that set out to trade in the interior was loaded with it. It was carried to the Grand Banks to trade for salt cod-fish. It was the regular drink of the fishermen in their frigid calling. In all white colonies it became the curse of the poor people. This devilish traffic, which long enslaved the Negro, destroyed the Indian, and debased the white man, was one of the ugliest legacies of this seventeenth century.

PART V

THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

CHAPTER XLI

THE CHIEF CHANGES OF THE CENTURY

Limits of the Century, logically 1688-1815—Chief Scenes of Action; Europe and North America—The Rise of Prussia and Russia —Chief Events, The American and French Revolutions—Increase of Food-Supply and Population in Europe—The Intellectual Awakening —The Age of Reason—The Idea of Progress—Dynastic Wars and Policy of Partition—The Balance of Power.

While this period will be called the eighteenth century the logical beginning of it ought to be the Revolution of 1688, when parliamentary government was placed upon a firm basis in England, and the logical end of it ought to be to the battle of Waterloo in 1815, when Napoleon fell and a century of marvellous progress began, in which all European countries shared.

The main stage is still set in Europe but certain actors assume more important roles, namely, Prussia, Russia and Austria. In North America the British win the French Colonial Empire by conquest and lose their own by the American Revolution. In India they displace the French just as the Dutch had displaced the Portuguese in the East Indies. China trades with the West through the port of Canton but Japan remains a hermit state. Australia and New Zealand do not as yet have a place in World History. Africa also remains outside the picture until the nineteenth century, though the Dutch farmers are already in South Africa and the white man's nefarious trade in negro slaves flourishes on both east and west coasts.

In western Europe a tremendous increase in population took place, especially in France and England. This was partly due to the enormous increase in the food-supply through the Newfoundland fisheries and the sugar and molasses industry in Spanish America, and partly due to increased employment consequent upon the growth of

exports to the new colonies. Another factor, which has previously escaped notice, was the adoption of plates, table-knives and forks, through the manufacture of inexpensive chinaware. Dishes of chinaware were more sanitary than the wooden trenchers used by all the poorer classes down to this time.

The marked increase in health and comfort was accompanied by an intellectual awakening, which as truly deserves the name of Renaissance as the great revival of learning in the fifteenth century. The eighteenth was the first forward-looking century in World History. It was then that the idea of progress was born, which, however strange it may seem to us now, was at that time new and revolutionary. During the Middle Ages the people of western Europe looked for their inspiring ideas in the doctrines of a Church that had been founded long before. When the Renaissance arrived they began to look back to the great age of Greece and Rome (page 395). Not until the eighteenth century did they learn to look forward. This new-born confidence that better forms of government could be devised than had ever existed before was one cause of the American Revolution, and it played an even larger part in the French Revolution, with which this century closes.

If it be asked what characterized the eighteenth century in Europe, apart from the intellectual awakening and the French Revolution, the answer would be, dynastic wars and the partition of the lands of weaker states by the stronger. The outstanding example of the latter was the division of Poland among Prussia, Russia and Austria. The fact that the Poles possessed a language of their own was a fact of no consequence, and their wishes were in no way consulted when they became the subjects of various alien monarchs. This injustice was never remedied until the Great War of 1914-1918.

During this same interval, that is, from 1688 to 1914, the first principle of foreign policy among the nations of

Europe, often styled the Powers, was to maintain the Balance of Power. This was no new idea, but it gained in emphasis and clearness through the published works of Sir Isaac Newton. In 1687 he explained for the first time the law that seems to keep the earth, the planets, and the other heavenly bodies in their orbits. This balance of forces in the celestial world was imitated by the Powers. For example, in the Seven Years' War (1756-1763) England joined with Prussia to prevent France from becoming too powerful. Again, in the Crimean War (1854-1855) England joined with France to prevent Russia from becoming too powerful. This difficult game could not be played forever; it was a prime cause of the Great War. Newton's law of gravitation could not be made a law of the nations. However, in the eighteenth century, the minds of men were mastered and guided by this great discovery. It was as much talked about as the theory of evolution in the nineteenth.

CHAPTER XLII

THE RISE OF PRUSSIA AND RUSSIA

The Hohenzollern Family—The Kingdom of Prussia—Forced Progress in Prussia—Frederick the Great and Maria Theresa—Frederick an Enlightened Despot.

Russia.—Peter the Great—His Picturesque Character—His Despotic Reforms—His Wars Against Sweden and Turkey—Peter a Grand Monarch—Catherine the Great and the Partition of Poland.

The Hapsburgs—Austria.—Character of the Hapsburgs—Greatness of Maria Theresa.

Dynastic Wars.—War of the Austrian Succession, 1701-1713—British Gains and French Losses in America—War of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748—Maria Theresa Proves Her Right to Rule—The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763—Increase of British Rule in India, 1757—British Conquest of Canada, 1759—The Sequels of the Conquest of Canada.

The Partition of Poland.—The Policy of Partition—Its Limits.

The rise of Prussia to a place among the great Powers was due to the talents of a remarkable family, the Hohenzollerns, who, along with the Bourbons of France and Spain, the Hapsburgs of Austria, and the Romanovs of Russia, dominated the political life of Europe for three centuries. Members of all four families still survive, though none of them wear crowns to-day. The Hohenzollerns ruled in Brandenburg in central Germany and in East Prussia on the Baltic. East Prussia was a German province among the Slavs, conquered long before by Knights of the Teutonic Order. The head of the Hohenzollerns bore the titles Margrave of Brandenburg and Duke of Prussia. He was one of the seven princes who elected the head of the Holy Roman Empire.

The strong strain of autocracy first appeared in Frederick William, the Great Elector, who died in 1688, the year that James II lost his throne in England. Thus Prussia was developing an autocracy when autocracy in England was yielding place to parliamentary government. In 1701 the next Hohenzollern obtained permission to adopt

a new title, King in Prussia; to this there was slight objection because Prussia was in Slavic territory, cut off from Germany by Poland, and so had never been part of the Holy Roman Empire.

The family trait of self-will manifested itself faithfully in Frederick William I, grandson of the Great Elector. He was a hard driver and forced his subjects to be diligent. Five-sevenths of the fruits of their industry were consumed by the expense of maintaining the army at double its former strength, namely, 85,000. Compulsory education was at the same time introduced to improve the general intelligence and so increase the supply of excellent soldiers. The author of these measures was the father of an abler son, Frederick the Great, who was permitted by destiny to enjoy a longer reign, 1740-1786, and to accomplish far more.

Frederick the Great was very different from Louis XIV. He lacked the grand manner, but he possessed a restless, keen and curious mind. He learned French in childhood, and spoke and wrote it habitually. He learned Latin secretly. His bookish tastes infuriated his father, who abused him until he planned to run away to England. After the discovery of this plot he was stripped of his military uniform, and compelled to add figures in the government offices. Upon his father's death, however, in 1740, it became at once apparent how sadly the studious son had been misunderstood. Within a month he had the army marching against Austria, and the young queen Maria Theresa was robbed of her province of Silesia (chief city, Breslau). The seemingly unpromising, intellectual boy, was to prove himself a more capable man in every way than his high-handed sire. He was to become and remain Germany's national hero.

He is the best example of the "enlightened despot". While Louis XIV had looked upon the majesty of kings as "an image of the grandeur of God", Frederick regarded royal power as a sacred trust. "The people do not exist

for the rulers," he wrote, "but the rulers for the sake of the people." His attitude to the citizens was fatherly; he wished Germany to be strong and prosperous. As agriculture was still the chief source of wealth, he guarded it carefully. He rebuilt farm-houses destroyed in the Seven Years' War, gave the army horses to the farmers for ploughing and fur-

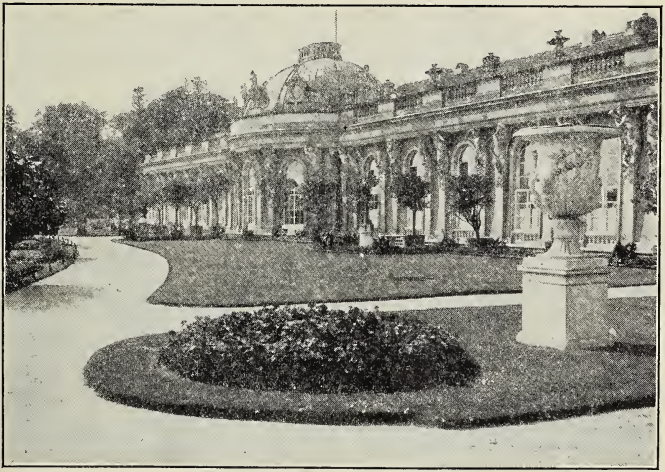


Photo by Burton Holmes from Ewing Galloway

THE PALACE OF SANS SOUCI

Built by Frederick the Great at Potsdam, 16 miles from Berlin. Frederick preferred this to the larger royal palace. Sans Souci means "care-free."

nished them seed grain. He allowed religious freedom because it was to the people's advantage; conscience did not enter into the matter. He encouraged education and kept in touch with the increase of knowledge in France and England. He even invited the brilliant Frenchman Voltaire to live at his court, though they soon quarrelled and parted. In the public offices he placed men chosen for their merit and ability. To sum up, he was an extremely diligent, well-informed, open-minded and progressive ruler.

Russia

Russia seriously entered into the circle of the European powers with the ascension of Peter the Great in 1682. He became a hero, and the story of his working in a shipyard in Holland used to be printed in school-books as an example of true humility. There was, however, no humility about him. He belonged to the family of the Romanovs, which was one of the four proud ruling families of Europe. Like the Great Elector of Prussia, he was strengthening autocracy in Russia in the very years that the English were expelling the Stuart kings, and establishing parliamentary government.

On the other hand, Peter the Great is undoubtedly interesting, because he was a great man. He possessed many times the energy of ordinary men. In body he was the very model of a Slavic prince, tall, well-built and strikingly handsome. He was also picturesque in his behaviour. He cared nothing for court etiquette, and when visiting France he lifted up the seventeen-year-old prince and kissed him. At home he called together an assembly of his nobles, came forward with shears and cut off their beards. He also imposed a tax on those who persisted in wearing them. He ordered the nobles to give up their Tartar garments and dress like Frenchmen. He ordered them to smoke tobacco, and he commanded the women to mingle in society with men like the ladies of France and England. It had been the custom to seclude them in their own apartments like the wives and daughters of the Mongol or Tartar princes.

His plan of reform for Russia was quite comparable with the plans of the modern Soviet. All changes were made arbitrarily. He put thousands of his mutinous body-guard to death, and organized a new army on the western model, numbering 200,000. He abolished the Duma, a sort of medieval parliament, and chose a staff of ministers to advise him, just as Chinese emperors were accustomed to do. He founded a system of espionage, which remained a

hateful feature of the Romanov rule; the spies of the secret police were everywhere. Like the Mongol rulers, he sought out skilled workmen from other countries to build ships and fortresses. He founded schools for engineers. It was possible to carry out this programme because Russia was habituated to despotism and to nothing else.

Peter's luck was not equal to his ambition. He expelled the Swedes from certain lands on the east side of the Baltic, but not without fighting hard for it and suffering many defeats. In this region on the Neva River he built a new capital, St. Petersburg, the name of which was changed during the Great War to Petrograd, and after the war to Leningrad. This was his "window to the west", for he was bound to imitate Europe to the last detail, and he aimed to possess a port and a navy on the Baltic. Against Turkey, which held the north shore of the Black Sea, he was unsuccessful; the Turk was weakening, it is true, but this process never proceeded so rapidly as the Powers hoped. The much desired Partition of Turkey never took place.

It goes without saying that Peter belongs in the class of Grand Monarchs. After 1721 his title was "Father of the Fatherland, Peter the Great, and Emperor of all Russia." Louis XIV was his model. In imitation of Versailles, and with the aid of a French architect, he built a suburban palace eighteen miles from St. Petersburg. It was surrounded by the usual park, with terraces, lagoons, fountains and cascades. The brilliant social functions of the Russian court eventually outrivalled all others for a time.

It remained for one of Peter's successors, Catherine the Great (d. 1796) to deprive the Turks of the coveted land on the Black Sea. For this there was excellent excuse, because the Turks did not belong in Europe and were doing it no good, but she had no defensible reason for joining with Prussia in dismembering Poland. Of this unfortunate country she seized three portions, in 1772, 1793 and 1795 respectively. This process was called the Partition of

Poland, and the lust of partition continued to actuate the Powers of Europe for long afterwards.

Catherine the Great belongs among the "enlightened despots". Her letters and her conversation were brilliant. She corresponded with Frederick the Great, Joseph II of Austria, Voltaire, and other intellectual people. She possessed an almost infallible eye for ability in others and surrounded herself with young and able ministers. She played

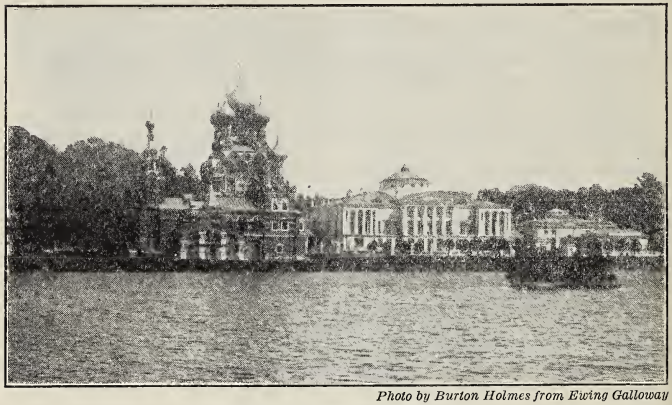


Photo by Burton Holmes from Ewing Galloway

THE CZAR'S SUMMER HOME

In the days of Peter the Great the village of Tsarskoye Selo (meaning "Czar's village") was given by the Czar to his wife. Splendid palaces were built there, and the town became the summer home of later Czars. After 1917 the Communists used the palaces for museums and hospitals, and renamed the place Dyetskoye Selo ("children's village"). It is about eighteen miles from the old capital, St. Petersburg (now Leningrad).

a selfish game, however, and fastened the fetters of serfdom more firmly upon the peasants, while favouring the nobles who joined her in cultivating French fashions in life and literature.

THE HAPSBURGS—AUSTRIA

Within six months of the day that Frederick the Great became king in Prussia in 1740, a beautiful young woman

known as Maria Theresa became Archduchess of Austria and Queen of Hungary and Bohemia. She inherited many other titles because she was the heiress of the Hapsburgs, who had ruled in Vienna since 1273. At the time of her ascension to the throne her dominions included more nationalities than any other realm of Europe; besides Germans and Hungarians, there were Flemish and Walloons in the Netherlands, Poles in Galicia, Rumanians in Hungary, Croats and Slovenes (both Slavic) in the south, and Italians in northern Italy. One title of her ancestors she could not inherit, that is, Holy Roman Emperor, but this was secured later for her husband, Francis I.

Of this huge family of races she became the head at the age of twenty-three. From the first she displayed extraordinary tact and courage. She looked like a queen, and she knew how to make capital of it. Louis XIV of France did not play his kingly role with more compelling grace. She bound to her side with exceptional loyalty the chivalrous Hungarian nobles, whose cavalry charges defended her borders on many a hard fought field. It is true that she lost the province of Silesia to Frederick the Great, but she added later to her territory a slice of Poland to even the balance. She held her own in the long war that was waged over her right to rule, the War of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748.

The large family of which she became the mother, five sons and eleven daughters, made her house a fortress of monarchy in Europe until the Great War. The last three Holy Roman Emperors were her two sons and a grandson. Her daughter Marie Antoinette was the unfortunate wife of Lous XVI, who lost her life along with her husband in the French Revolution. Her great-grand-daughter married Napoleon Bonaparte. Her family was still reigning in Vienna at the time of the Great War.

Maria Theresa was a strong, self-willed and intelligent queen but not an "enlightened despot". Her son Joseph II belonged in that class. He was familiar with all the new

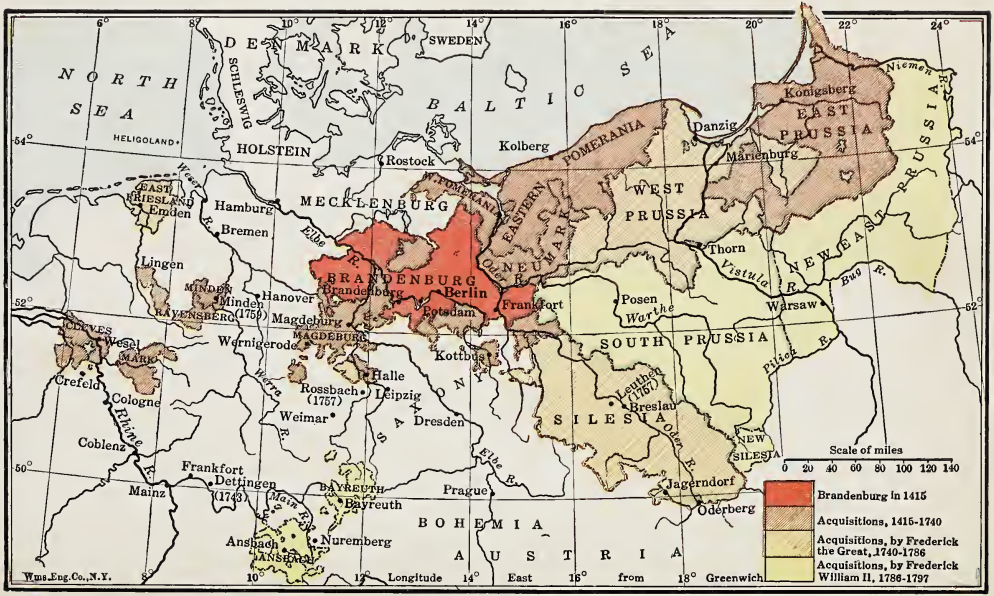
thought of Voltaire and the eighteenth century intellectuals (page 511). He visited other enlightened despots, such as Catherine the Great of Russia and Frederick the Great of Prussia. He claimed to be guided by reason and always thought himself reasonable. The result was that he attempted impossible things, such as forcing the use of the German language upon all his subjects. He made the mistake of settling Germans on land among Magyars and Slavs. He attempted to deprive the religious orders of their lands, although his subjects were strongly Roman Catholic. The establishment of hospitals, orphanages and asylums was a genuine blessing, but could not counteract his other mistakes.

Dynastic Wars

War of the Spanish Succession, 1701-1713
War of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748
Seven Years' War, 1756-1763

The eighteenth century was notorious for conflicts waged by kings in the interests of kings, commonly called dynastic wars. Some kings fought to keep their crowns and their lands, and some hoped to secure the lands, if not the crowns, of other kings. They were the more eager to secure more land, because farms were still the chief source of wealth, and more land meant more taxes. They also fought to keep any one king from becoming too powerful (Balance of Power).

Such was the War of the Spanish Succession, 1701-1713. Charles II of Spain, dying childless, left his twenty-two crowns by his will to Philip, grandson of his brother-in-law, Louis, the Grand Monarch. This legacy meant that France would rule western Europe from the North Sea and the Channel to Sicily. None of the other powers were willing to consent to this, and least of all the Holy Roman Emperor in Vienna, also a brother-in-law of the deceased king of Spain. England could not afford to allow France to secure the Spanish Netherlands (Belgium), and Holland liked this



GROWTH OF PRUSSIA TO 1797

prospect still less. William of Orange, head of the Dutch Republic, was then king of England, and so the two countries had joint reason for resisting. William died in 1701, but the war was carried on for Queen Anne by her brilliant general the Duke of Marlborough. In North America this was called Queen Anne's War.

It was the American phase of the conflict that gives it claim to be called a World War and bestows importance upon it in World History. By the Peace of Utrecht, 1713, the French conceded to England the Island of Newfoundland and the territory of Acadia (Nova Scotia and New Brunswick). At the same time the title of the British was allowed to the Hudson Bay region. This confined the French to the river and gulf of St. Lawrence, and was the first definite step towards the termination of the French Empire in North America. In Europe the dream of Louis XIV of uniting France and Spain under his grandson was defeated, and Spain surrendered the Netherlands to Austria. This was important enough, but Britain's retention of Gibraltar, the key to the Mediterranean, advanced her one more step towards her nineteenth century position as Mistress of the Seas. This prospect, however, was hardly recognized at the time, and a century was to pass before it became a reality. History is the evolution of the unforeseen.

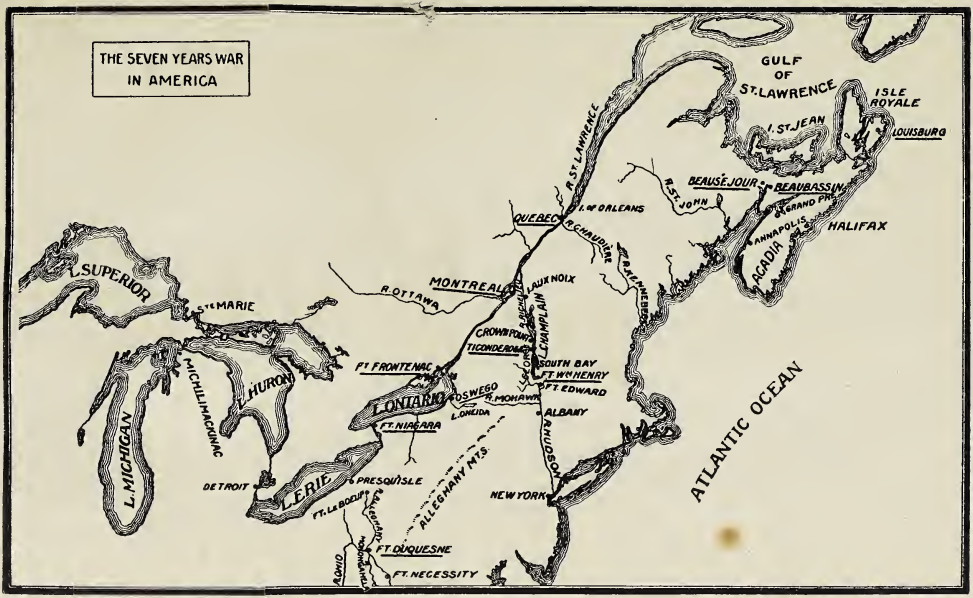
The second dynastic struggle was the War of the Austrian Succession, 1740-1748. This would never have occurred unless a woman, Maria Theresa, had become Archduchess of Austria and Queen of Hungary and Bohemia. Frederick the Great promptly seized the province of Silesia, which lay south-east of his own Brandenburg and a little remote from Vienna. The Holy Roman Emperor, Charles VII, Elector of Bavaria, claimed Maria Theresa's dominions, being an heir in the male line. The French were hostile, as usual, to Austria. England and Holland threw their weight on the side contrary to France, being unwilling to let her gain possession of the Austrian Netherlands

(Belgium) ; the English, of course, have never been willing for France, or any other strong power, to secure a foothold on the North Sea. The only result of this costly war was to prove the courage and ability of Maria Theresa, who lost only Silesia. The struggle illustrates, of course, the working of the Balance of Power. In North America this was known as King George's War, because George II was then king of England.

The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763, had really three origins, one in Europe, one in North America, and a third in India. Consequently it partook of the nature of a World War. In Europe it began with a combination of Powers against Frederick the Great, who threatened to upset the Balance of Power. In America there was fighting even before war was declared in Europe, because the English General Braddock in 1755 tried to prevent the French from pegging down their frontier in the Ohio Valley by founding Fort Duquesne (Pittsburg) (page 488). In India there had been fighting since 1744 between the English East India Company's post at Madras and the French East India Company's post at Pondicherry, both on the south-east coast of the Indian peninsula.

Officially, of course, the war began in Europe, and to the nations of that day the contest there was all-important. The resourceful Maria Theresa in this instance persuaded her old enemy France to join with her against Frederick the Great, and Saxony, Sweden and Russia took the same side. England, as usual, took the opposite side to France. Frederick was surrounded, but he won a victory in the west and then in the east, both in 1757. English money enabled him to carry on, and at the last the map of Central Europe remained the same.

It was in India and North America that the course of World History was changed by the war. In 1756 Calcutta was captured by a worthless and cruel native prince (nawab or nabob) of Bengal, Suraj-ud-Doulaw, who was in league


THE SEVEN YEARS WAR
IN AMERICA
GULF
OF
ST. LAWRENCE
ISLE
ROYALE
I. ST. JEAN
LOUISBURG
BEAUSEJOUR
REAUBASSIN
R. ST. JOHN
GRAND PRE
ANNAPOLIS
HALIFAX
ACADIA
R. ST. LAWRENCE
L. DE ORLEANS
QUEBEC
R. MAURICE
L. SUPERIOR
STE MARIE
R. OTTAWA
MONTREAL
LAUX NOIX
CHAMPLAIN
CROWN POINT
TICONDEROGA
SOUTH BAY
FT. WM HENRY
FT. EDWARD
ALBANY
HUDSON
FT. FRONTENAC
OSWEGO
R. MOHAWK
ONEIDA
L. ONTARIO
FT. NIAGARA
L. HURON
MICHILIMACKINAC
L. MICHIGAN
DETROIT
L. ERIE
PRESQU'ISLE
FT. LE BOEUF
ALLEGHANY MTS
NEW YORK
ATLANTIC OCEAN
FT. DUQUESNE
OHIO
FT. NECESSITY

with the French. He hastened his own ruin by shutting up 146 English prisoners in a small room with a single window, on a hot night in June. Only twenty-three emerged alive in the morning. This crime became notorious under the name "the Black Hole of Calcutta". Retribution came a year later when Robert Clive, with 900 European soldiers and 1,500 Sepoys completely defeated the nawab with his 50,000 native troops (Battle of Plassey). This was the end of French rule in India, except for some unimportant trading posts. The British Empire in India, however, was still a long way in the future. It was the British East India Company, not the British Crown, that continued for another hundred years to govern Bombay, Madras and Bengal. The increase of British influence in India was long undesired, unplanned and unforeseen. Robert Clive, whom William Pitt called a "heaven-born general", was an empire-builder, but he was hardly aware of it.

In North America the capture in 1758 of the new French fortress of Louisburg, constructed on Cape Breton Island to guard the Gulf of St. Lawrence, made possible the capture of Quebec the following year. The hero of this exploit, James Wolfe, was also an empire-builder. By the Treaty of Paris, 1763, with which the war concluded, the whole of French Canada passed into the possession of the British; at that time the name Canada included also the Ohio Valley. The victorious Wolfe, however, could have had very little vision of the outcome of his heroism. The course of history follows a curve that no man can chart in advance of events. The vision of the wisest men is so foreshortened that they cannot interpret the meaning of events until long after they have taken place. The British Empire was planned by no one; it is an example of the birth of the unforeseen. Clive in India and Wolfe in Canada were, of course, the servants of the British Crown, but they were also the unconscious ministers of destiny.

The far-separated victories of Clive and Wolfe were the

first links in two chains of events that influence World History to this day. It was through the trade of the East India Company that the British first made contacts with China, and so opened by violence the doors of that ancient and self-sufficient empire (p. 593). The conquest of Canada, on the other hand, was the prelude to the revolt of the English colonies in America. This American Revolution, in turn, was the prelude of the French Revolution in Europe, and also of the numerous revolutions in Mexico, Central and South America, which shattered the colonial empire of Spain. Thus the Anglo-Saxons began to make an impact upon other races from two centres; first, from the motherland, and second, from the United States, their democratic offspring.

The Partition of Poland

Already before the end of the eighteenth century the influence of American democracy was at work in Central Europe. British influence was there, too, because the Poles attempted in 1791 to introduce parliamentary government. One of the most effective supporters of this was General Kosciusko, who had fought in the army of George Washington for American independence. He was a democrat of the school of the American Thomas Jefferson. Upon the defeat of his party he left Poland, but returned to lead an insurrection in 1794. This was crushed by superior forces of Russians and Prussians in spite of heroic courage and the military skill of Kosciusko. The kingdom of Poland was dissolved in 1795 and the remaining land divided among Russia, Prussia and Austria. They had already taken generous slices in 1772 and 1793. Neither the Polish race, however, nor the Polish language disappeared, and the Polish nation was born again after the Great War (p. 756).

The policy of Partition, that is, dividing the lands of weaker nations among the stronger, is said to be typical of the eighteenth century. This is true, but it is also true that

it is particularly characteristic of Central Europe. Countries such as Spain, France and England, situated on the seaboard, expanded by founding colonies overseas. Austria, on the other hand, being situated in the heart of continental Europe, could only expand by encroaching upon the lands of her smaller neighbours. It was Austria's pressure upon little Serbia that started the Great War of 1914.

CHAPTER XLIII

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Effect of Dynastic Wars upon English Colonists—The Vexations of the Colonists—The Mistakes of Governors—The Tyranny of Parliament—The Navigation Acts—The Stamp Act—The Punishment of the Bostonians—The Pamphlet *Common Sense*—Mistakes of the British—France Becomes an Ally of the United States—The Surrender at Yorktown, 1781—The Peace of Versailles, 1783—The United Empire Loyalists.

It has often been observed that while one series of events in history is rising to its climax another chain of cause and effect is creating a new movement all unobserved by those most vitally concerned. It was so with the series of dynastic wars in Europe between the time of William of Orange and George the Third. They were all duplicated in America under different names, King William's War, Queen Anne's War, King George's War, and the French and Indian War. The last named, of course, was the Seven Years' War, 1756-1763, which was the climax for the time being. In all these the colonists played a valiant part, acquitting themselves with credit in the forests and on the seas. Nevertheless their characters were slowly being remoulded into a new type of Briton, for the American, it must always be remembered, is a modified species of Anglo-Saxon.

The original settlers had fled from England in quest of liberty, but of their loyalty to Great Britain there was long no doubt. Only by degrees did they come around to the point of view that they were fighting wars begun on another continent and settled by peace treaties in which they had no part. This slowly gathering vexation was brought to a head by the surrender of the French fortress of Louisburg in 1748, which the Bostonians had taken single-handed in 1745. To this growing vexation was added

resentment at the contempt which British officers of the regular armies displayed towards the colonial militia. In 1755 the British General Braddock led his baggage train through the Virginia forests as if he were marching on a highway of Europe. He scorned the offers of the militia to send scouts ahead, and the logical disaster followed. The expedition was ambushed by the French and Indians; Braddock was killed, and only the resourcefulness of the despised colonial troops saved the rest of the force from being wiped out.

This growing vexation and resentment was aggravated among thoughtful people by the history of the colonies. When weak they had been forced to defend themselves. At length grown strong and self-supporting, they found English governors more and more self-assertive. The latter were more bent upon maintaining their own dignity, as a general rule, than upon serving their subjects. They quarrelled with the local assembles over the appointments of judges, sheriffs and other officials. They claimed the right to dispense favours and to build up a following for themselves among the leading families.

The growth of parliamentary government in England under William of Orange and the first two Georges had been of no benefit to the colonies. Quite the reverse; parliament could be quite as tyrannous as a king, and the influence of English merchants on the making of laws was hostile to the interests of merchants of Philadelphia and Boston. The Board of Trade in England had as much to do with the Revolution as King George III himself. It procured the enactment in 1733 of the notorious Sugar and Molasses Act, which placed excessive duties on these products unless they had been grown in English sugar islands such as Jamaica or the Barbados. The traders of Boston preferred to frequent the Spanish or French West Indies, where they could sell their cod-fish, lumber and soap for Spanish dollars.

The Sugar and Molasses Act was only one of many



North America, 1750



NORTH AMERICA, 1783

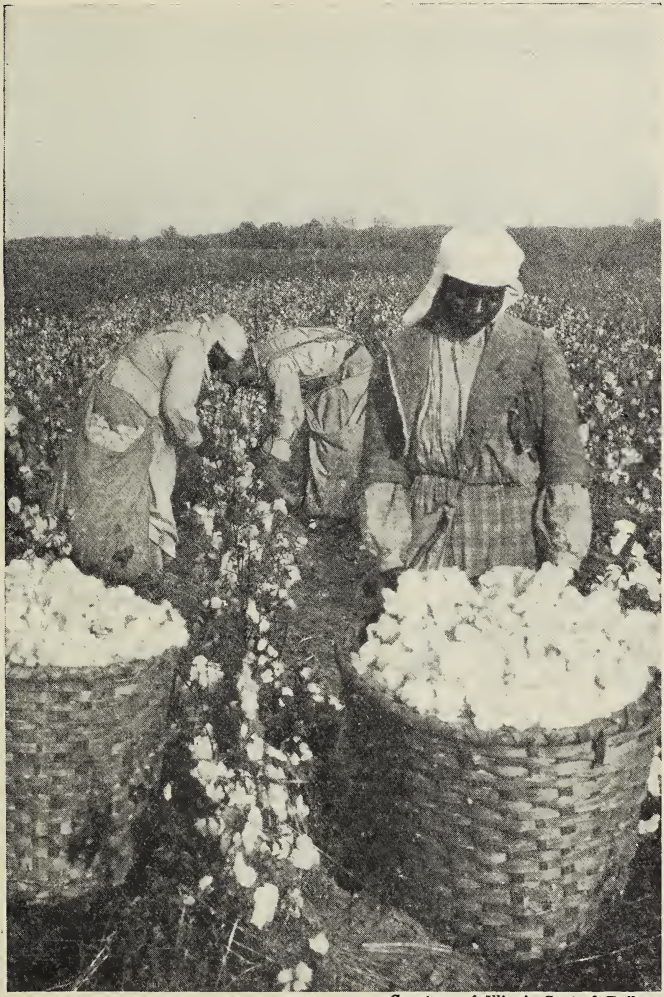
restrictions placed upon the trade of the American colonies between 1660 and 1760. These are known collectively as Navigation Acts. They are expressions of the theory of trade prevalent at that time, namely, that all wealth consists of gold and silver, that every state ought to sell more than it buys, and that colonies exist for the benefit of the mother-country. The operation of the last mentioned principle required that all ships owned in the colonies should trade only in English ports, or, if they visited foreign ports, call at an English port and pay duty on the cargo. For a long time these restrictions were evaded by ships of the colonies, and ninety per cent. of the American trade was sheer smuggling. It was after the Seven Years' War, when England had incurred a heavy debt, that a determined effort was made to put the Navigation Acts into effect. Naval officers were made into customs officials and houses in Boston were searched under "writs of assistance" in the quest for smuggled goods.

Trouble might have been postponed, even under these irritations, if George III had not made up his mind to be a real king according to his own notions. A most unfortunate move was the imposition of a tax upon legal papers in 1765, which meant that every one who wished to make his will or execute a contract was obliged to pay a shilling or so for a sheet of stamped paper. This Stamp Act was more irritating because it affected the people in all parts, and not the ports alone. Resistance took the form of riots, and the vendors of stamps were roughly handled. Repeal came within a year but a new tax was imposed upon tea, lead, glass and other imports. This evoked a boycott of English goods, which cost the merchants dearly. Then the colonists were tempted by an offering of some cargoes of tea at a very low price, which was scornfully dumped into Boston harbour. This Boston Tea Party was the work of a band of young men dressed as Indians and armed with tomahawks.

A state of war was reached when George III sent troops from Halifax and ordered the port of Boston closed as a punishment. To protest against this and to "determine upon wise and proper measures", all the colonies except Georgia sent representatives to a meeting at Philadelphia. This is known as the First Continental Congress. The Second Congress assembled after a skirmish between the Massachusetts militia and British regular troops at Lexington in 1774. George Washington was appointed commander of the continental army, but as yet there was no declaration of independence. "Our cause is just," they wrote, "against violence we have taken up arms. We shall lay them down when hostilities cease on the part of our aggressors."

George III, however, was only beginning hostilities. The last days of the year 1775 brought word that 20,000 German mercenaries had been hired to crush the rebellion. The rage caused by this announcement was crystallized into revolution by the appearance of a pamphlet entitled *Common Sense*, which set forth how inconsistent it was to be waging a bitter war while protesting loyalty to the British king. The author of this polemic was not a colonist but an Englishman, Thomas Paine, who was deeply saturated with the popular rationalism of contemporary England and France. No printed words ever exerted a more instant effect. Within six months the Declaration of Independence was issued.

The king's advisers displayed no better judgment in planning the war than in beginning it. At first the aim was to cut the colonies in two by gaining control of the Hudson River. To accomplish this it was arranged that three expeditions should converge upon Albany, one from Montreal, one from Lake Ontario, and a third from New York by way of the Hudson. The last named never started, because Admiral Howe never received his orders. The second, from Lake Ontario, was cut off in the forests by frontier fighters. The third, under General Burgoyne, was



Courtesy of Illinois Central Railway

COTTON PICKING IN THE SOUTHERN STATES

compelled to surrender at Saratoga, October, 1777. This has been classified as one of the Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World. It was a turning point of the war. The British should never have attacked the colonists in the forests.

This disaster of the British encouraged France to become an ally of the new United States and brought French ships, French troops and French gold. Spain also became an ally, though she sent no aid. In the meanwhile, Washington had driven the British from Boston but was repulsed from New York and New Jersey. The British fleet retained New York throughout the war and it held Philadelphia during the winter of 1777-1778, while Washington's army starved and shivered at Valley Forge not far away.

Having failed in New England and New York, the British tried an approach from Georgia and the Carolinas, which colonies, it was hoped, might prove to be more loyal. They captured Savannah in 1778 and Charleston in 1780. From the latter place the troops worked their way northward under General Cornwallis. The plan was working out successfully when the French fleet came into play. The English withdrew from Philadelphia to avoid capture, and reinforcements coming from New York were unable to make a landing. Three thousand French soldiers were landed instead. Meanwhile, General Washington arrived just as he was needed, and General Cornwallis was surrounded by land and sea on the peninsula where Yorktown stands. There was nothing for him to do but to surrender. This ended the fighting, October, 1781.

The peacemakers met at Versailles and signed a treaty in 1783. The independence of the United States was recognized. Its territory was admitted to extend to the Mississippi and the Great Lakes, although the British retained a line of profitable trading posts south of the Lakes for many years. This was to offset the delay in payment of debts due to British merchants. Citizens of the United States were to share in the Newfoundland fisheries.

The British did not give up New York until the Loyalists from surrounding parts had been removed by sea to Nova Scotia, which then included New Brunswick. Other Loyalists were guided across the trails of New York State to the St. Lawrence and Niagara Rivers, where they crossed into British territory to begin life over again in the primeval forests. These United Empire Loyalists became the founders of the Dominion of Canada.

CHAPTER XLIV

A NEW PATTERN OF GOVERNMENT
THE YOUNG REPUBLIC ON TRIAL

Threefold Importance of the American Revolution—The New States Drift Apart—Temporary Nature of the First Union—Events Leading Up to the Constitutional Convention—Its Place in World History—The Framers of the Constitution were Britishers—Powers of the President—The Two Houses of Congress—Method of electing the President—Function of the Supreme Court—The Three Branches of the Government—Influence of Newton's Law of Gravitation—The Constitution Never Profoundly Altered.

THE YOUNG REPUBLIC ON TRIAL.—Dangers of the Period of the French Revolution—The Wisdom of George Washington—His Proclamation of Neutrality—The Louisiana Purchase, 1803—British Interference with America Shipping—The War of 1812-1814—British Emigration to the United States.

The American Revolution possesses special importance because it marked the termination of the first British colonial empire. It also possesses great importance because the pattern of government devised for the new Republic was afterwards adopted by the Spanish colonies of Mexico, Central and South America. It is more important still because the new British Empire as we know it to-day embodies certain principles directly descended through the American experience. The dynastic wars of Europe, throughout the centuries, from the Middle Ages down to the Great War, have usually been destructive. The American Revolution was constructive, not only for the United States, but also for the Anglo-Saxon world at large (pp. 503, 617, 625-627).

The years following the war were even more critical for the former colonies and new States than the war itself. They tended to drift apart as soon as the danger passed which had brought them together. Of ninety-one members of the Continental Congress, seven from each of thirteen States, only twenty-three assembled to approve of the Treaty of Versailles in 1784, by which their independence

was recognized. By the year 1788-1789 there were not enough present to transact business.

Plans for a permanent union had been mooted more than once, but without effect. During the war there had been certain Articles of Confederation adopted, but they bound the States to co-operation only. Money had been borrowed to carry on the war, but no one had authority to impose taxes to liquidate the debt. The British still retained a chain of trading posts along the Great Lakes as security for sums due to British merchants. The monarchs of Europe probably viewed the situation with exquisite satisfaction.

The problem before the new States was to invent a pattern of government that would enable the thirteen "free and independent States" to act together as a single free and independent State before the whole world. The solution of this problem came about naturally and gradually as if arranged by a providential destiny. A few men of Maryland and Virginia met at George Washington's home to discuss their troubles in 1785. A larger group from five States met at Annapolis the following year. In 1787 delegates from all the States except Rhode Island came together in Independence Hall at Philadelphia to revise the Articles of Confederation. This meeting was afterwards called the Constitutional Convention because it drew up the document called the Constitution, by which the United States of America have been governed ever since.

The Constitutional Convention was remarkable for many reasons. It was remarkable because the men who there met together had come with different minds. They went away with one mind. They sank their differences for the common good. The Convention was remarkable also because it has furnished a model for a score of countries in later days. Every Spanish republic from Mexico to Argentina was to be born a few years later in similar Conventions. Every Spanish republic was to pattern its Constitution upon the

document drawn up by Washington and his colleagues in 1787. That Constitution was also the cause of the Constitutional Act passed by the British Parliament in 1791 for the new Provinces of Canada. The Constitutional Convention was the unconscious model of the Conferences that led to the birth of the Dominion of Canada in 1867. In 1889 the new United States of Brazil was patterned after the United States of North America. In truth, the United States had offered a pattern of free and democratic government for the world. It furnished a model for the new Chinese Republic in 1911. Its influence is perpetual and world-wide.

We call the men Americans who framed the Constitution, but it must never be forgotten that they were all Britishers. They had all grown up from boyhood to manhood as loyal subjects of the king of England. They had been accustomed to a certain degree of self-government in their colonies. They based their claim to freedom upon the "immemorial rights of Englishmen". They felt themselves to be the heirs of every struggle for liberty that had taken place on British soil, of Magna Carta and the Bill of Rights. It was precisely because they were British that they resented the tyranny of British kings and the British Parliament. It was because they were British that they made war against George III. It was because they were British that they were able to devise a new plan of Government which they have never found need to change profoundly. The whole political experience of the British people was concentrated in the wisdom of the men who came together at the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia.

Their plan of government has long been familiar to the world. At the head is the President, who for four years exercises more power than the king of Great Britain, Ireland and the Dominions beyond the seas. He is Commander of the Army and Navy. He is advised by a Cabinet of ten members whom he chooses without a vote of the

people. He can veto bills passed by Congress, and often does so. He appoints all the employees of the Government, including tens of thousands of clerks and fifty thousand postmasters. Because he has the power to do all these things he is called the Chief Executive. In practice, however, he is constantly advised by the leaders of Congress elected by the people. He is restrained by the opinion of the people. His power is limited in time because he must seek re-election at the end of four years. He is also limited to two terms, not by law, but by the example of the first President, George Washington, who refused a third term.

The President may send messages to Congress concerning the state of the country and what laws are needed, but he cannot make laws. This is the business of Congress. Congress consists of two houses, the Senate and the House of Representatives, commonly called the "House". The Senate corresponds to the House of Lords in England but its members are elected every four years, two from each State. This fixed arrangement was made in order that a small State like Rhode Island might not be swamped by larger numbers of senators from large States like New York. The members of the House, which corresponds to the British House of Commons, are elected by the States according to population. At first it was one Representative for every 30,000 voters. From 1930 to 1940 it will be one for every 280,000 voters. The proportion is adjusted every ten years, when a census of all the people is taken.

The voters were not intended to elect the President and Vice-president. The original plan was that the voters should elect a group of men to choose a President and Vice-president. The group of men so elected were, and are, called the "Electoral College", but they no longer make the choice intended. Since 1830 the practice has prevailed of holding conventions to choose candidates. Each political party has its own convention and names its candidates. When the election has taken place the Electoral College merely

registers the choice of the successful party, and its candidates become President and Vice-president.

No law was ever so clearly written that its meaning becomes clear for all time to come. In order that the meaning of the laws passed by Congress might be strictly interpreted a Supreme Court was provided for in the Constitution. It consists of a Chief Justice and eight associate judges. It has the power to declare any law null and void if the judges decide that it violates the Constitution.

Thus the Government of the United States consist of three parts: Congress, which makes the laws, the Supreme Court, which interprets them, and the President, who sees that they are carried out. These are called the legislative, judicial and executive branches of the government.

The framers of the Constitution were to no small degree inspired by the political example of the ancient Greek democracies, but they were also influenced by the law of gravitation as enunciated by Sir Isaac Newton, which was then very much in the minds of intellectual people. It was intended that the new government should be a nicely counterbalanced machine, with each part of it controlled by the rest, in somewhat the same way that the mutual attraction of the heavenly bodies keeps each one from straying from its orbit. It has been mentioned above (page 472) that the same theory influenced the minds of those who fostered the policy known as the Balance of Power.

In one respect the American system is easy to throw out of balance. It is possible, for example, that the people may elect a Republican President but a Democratic Congress, or *vice versa*. Again, since certain elections take place in the middle of a presidential term, it is possible for the President to lose a majority control of Congress at the end of two years. This defect has not been remedied.

Another defect was experienced for the last time in 1932-1933, namely, the Republican President and Congress were repudiated by the elections of November. Congress

assembled on December 7th, but no longer possessed a mandate of power from the people. It was known as the "lame-duck session". In the future, according to the Twentieth Amendment to the Constitution, Congress shall assemble on January 3rd, and the new President shall assume office on January 20th. The longer interval between elections and assumption of office was necessary, of course, in colonial days, when roads were bad and railways and telegraph lacking.

Such is the document that has furnished a pattern for almost all republics founded in the last century and a half. In the country for which it was made it has served its purpose well. It was doomed to be tested promptly during the wars that followed the French Revolution, and still more severely in the Civil War of 1861-1865, but it has survived all dangers. Its working has never been punctuated by revolutions. It can be amended by a two-thirds vote of Congress, provided that such action is ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States. This has occurred twenty times, but the spirit of the document remains the same. It is the oldest written Constitution now in force in the world.

The Young Republic on Trial

The new States were one by one approving of the new Constitution when the French Revolution entered upon its first stages. Before the Constitution was ten years old the Napoleonic Wars began, and Europe was shaken as it had never been since the fall of the Roman Empire. The new government of the United States was thus given a first-rate opportunity of destroying itself by joining in the fray. It was a time of testing, and the result was satisfactory.

If the union was new and untried, its leaders were wise and strong. George Washington had been unanimously elected as the first President. He fully realized beforehand the importance of all that he might do or say. His head

was never turned by the praise that was showered upon him. "I walk on untrodden ground," he wrote; "there is scarcely any action the motive of which may not be subjected to a double interpretation; there is scarcely any part of my conduct that may not hereafter be drawn into precedent." Some of his friends wished to have a strong, assertive central government. They were called Federalists. Others were fearful of a strong government. They were called Republicans, a word that has a different meaning now. The two parties hated each other. Nevertheless, Washington chose Alexander Hamilton, chief of the Federalists as Secretary of the Treasury, and Thomas Jefferson, chief of the Republicans, as Secretary of State. They sank their hatreds under Washington's leadership and worked together for the new United States.

The first opportunity of self-destruction was offered by France. She had become an ally in 1778 during the Revolutionary War, but the treaty had been made when France was still a monarchy under Louis XVI. In 1789, when Washington assumed office, France was just becoming a Republic, soon to shock the world by the wholesale murder of aristocrats. Was the treaty of alliance made with the king still valid after he had been guillotined? Were the United States to renew the war with England at the urging of the French Republic? Washington said "No" to both questions. He uttered his famous proclamation of neutrality declaring it the policy of the new nation to keep aloof from European wars and politics. He warned it against the danger of "entangling alliances". This policy was not abandoned until the United States entered the Great War in 1917. After the Great War it prevented them from entering the League of Nations.

Washington's policy was not popular, but neither slander nor clamour moved him. He sent John Jay, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, to England as an agent of peace. All he secured was a promise on the part of the

British to surrender the trading posts they still held as security for debts; the amount of the debts was to be settled by arbitration. An agreement was made to permit citizens of the United States and Canada to pass freely across the international border in the pursuit of their business. This was called the Jay Treaty, 1794. In the following year peace was made with Spain, which still held Florida. In 1803 the territory of the United States was vastly increased by the purchase of the Louisiana Territory, the region between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains, for a cash payment of $15,000,000. The vendor was none other than Napoleon.

The temper of the new government was sorely tried soon after this, in 1806, by Napoleon's order that all ships touching at British ports should be seized. The British government retorted by an order that all ships not touching at British ports should be seized. These embargoes affected the American shippers chiefly, because they had been carrying food to the warring nations. To the loss of profit was added the vexation of having their ships overhauled and searched for deserters by British men of war. It was claimed that the British officers were not over-scrupulous, and sometimes "impressed" American seamen into their service. To these distresses New England people were inclined to submit, but southern orators, especially Henry Clay of Kentucky, demanded war.

Congress declared war in June, 1812. In the conflict that followed very little was decided. Neither side gained territory. Little navies were built on Lake Ontario and Lake Erie. Little naval battles occurred. The Canadians captured Detroit and the Americans Toronto. Troops of neither side penetrated far into the domain of the other. The British burned public buildings in Washington, but were repulsed from New Orleans. By sea American and British ships sniped at each other on all the seas. Two thousand British ships were captured, but of the American

fleet only two frigates floated free at the end of the war. Neither country is proud of the war now. Peace was made by the Treaty of Ghent at the end of 1814. Nothing was said in this document about the rights of impressing sailors and searching vessels. Britannia was Mistress of the Seas.

After the conclusion of the Napoleonic Wars in 1815 a stream of immigration, especially from the British Isles, began to flow towards the United States, strengthening greatly the Anglo-Saxon element already there. The country experienced the Industrial Revolution and became concerned in general with its own growing pains. During the Napoleonic Wars the Spanish colonies had seized the opportunity of following the example of the United States and becoming self-governing republics. Brazil became an independent empire. Thus the whole of the New World south of the Great Lakes began to go its own way apart from Europe. Canada remained British and proceeded to win, mainly by peaceful methods, the rights of self-government which the older colonies had won by revolution.

CHAPTER XLV

THE BEGINNINGS OF CANADA

Significance of the American Revolution for Canada—The Five Canadian Settlements—The French in Quebec—The Quebec Act of 1774—Nova Scotia an Anglo-American Colony—The Loyalists of Ontario—The Loyalists of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick—The New Government Out-of-date When Created—The Constitutional Act of Canada an Illusion—The Temper of the Loyalists—The Red River Colony—British Columbia.

THE WAR OF 1812-1814.

The significance of the American Revolution in World History is further enhanced by two very important facts: first, those colonists who were forced to withdraw because of the Revolution furnished a new basis of population for Canada, and determined its national temper for all time; secondly, it is through the Canadian people and its government that the United States has exerted its most direct influence upon the development of the British Commonwealth of Nations. This latter topic will be discussed in the chapters on the nineteenth century under the heading THE ANGLO-SAXON WORLD. The former topic belongs here.

The Dominion of Canada resembles the United States in having arisen out of distinct settlements which in the course of time were joined together. There is this difference, however, that the thirteen American colonies lay side by side in a north and south line along the Atlantic Coast, while the five Canadian settlements were widely separated along an east and west line across the continent. The most easterly was Nova Scotia, and west of it lay Quebec and Ontario; separated from these by a wilderness of woods, the Red River Settlement was founded, later the Province of Manitoba, and far beyond this across the prairies and the mountains arose, at a later time, the colony of British Columbia.

In point of time, of course, the French settlements in

Quebec were the oldest. Jacques Cartier came to explore in 1535, though a trading post at Quebec was founded only in 1608. The progress of the colony was very slow during the period of trading companies, but quickened its pace under the ambitious designs of Louis XIV, the Grand Monarch. Gradually the project developed of a great colonial empire extending from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico, but this was frustrated by the victory of the British in the Seven Years' War, 1756-1763 (page 484). By the Treaty of Paris in 1763 all the French settlements, widely scattered along the St. Lawrence, Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, were left marooned in the rear of the English colonies on the Atlantic. By proclamation of George III this huge area, under the name of Quebec, was closed to the English colonists. In 1774, to keep the French clear of the independence movement, then rapidly increasing its strength in the English colonies, the British government passed the Quebec Act, which confirmed them in the right to practise the Roman Catholic religion at a time when adherents of Rome were still disqualified from teaching school or holding any public office in England. This was the first step towards transforming them into loyal British subjects. They still reverence the Quebec Act as their charter of liberty.

There had been French settlements on the Bay of Fundy also, but the whole district of Acadia became British by the Peace of Utrecht in 1713. The French town at Port Royal had been captured in 1710 before peace was made and its name changed to Annapolis in honour of Queen Anne. Halifax was founded in 1749 to offset the adjacent French fortress of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island. All the lands around the gulf became British after 1763. In addition to the British settlers who came direct from the old land, there were others who came from Boston before the Revolution, so that Nova Scotia was to a certain degree an offshoot of New England. This Anglo-American colony

was the second of the five units of which Canada was made.

Third in point of time is the British unit now called Ontario, which had its beginnings in the years following the Revolution. Those colonists who had remained loyal to King George were ruthlessly robbed and persecuted by the new Americans. There was no recourse for them but to load the remnants of their property on ox-carts and begin



One of the Earliest Loyalist Settlements in Upper Canada

the long and toilsome tramp along the trails of New York State to the forests beyond the Lakes and the St. Lawrence. Providentially for them, there were no Indians to fight, because the native Hurons and Algonquins had been almost exterminated during the Indian wars of the previous century. In the forest-pocket where lands were assigned to them they had no foes except the distress of beginning pioneer life all over again. This alone was an experience sufficiently bitter, and it was necessary for the British government to furnish seed-grain and implements during many years.

By no means all of these United Empire Loyalists, as they were privileged to call themselves, took the overland trails to Niagara and the St. Lawrence. It was far more expeditious for those who were living in the lower valley of the Hudson and other parts near the sea to migrate to Nova Scotia. In order to assist them the British refused to surrender the port of New York until all had been evacuated. Many were transported to the St. John River, where a new province of New Brunswick was formed. Others found homes in Nova Scotia.

These two groups, the Loyalists of the Atlantic Provinces and the Loyalists of Ontario, have infected all Canadians, even the French, with their own temper. Its ingredients are an intense loyalty to the British Empire, a fierce independence, a certain resentment towards Americans, and a boundless faith in the great future that awaits Canada.

The fourth unit that entered into the composition of Canada was the Red River Colony founded on the edge of the prairies by Lord Selkirk in 1811. The settlers were stalwart Scotchmen, who arrived by way of Hudson Bay, and for a half a century had no connection whatever with the older colonies in the East. They were ruled by the Hudson's Bay Company and treated as step-children, an unwelcome legacy from the too zealous Lord Selkirk.

It was the great good fortune of the British to possess a fifth colony on the Pacific Coast to complete the chain of settlements across the continent. This region had a history all its own before it entered the Dominion in 1871 under the name of British Columbia. In 1579 Sir Francis Drake had sailed almost as far north as the present international boundary line and claimed the coast for Queen Elizabeth under the name of New Albion. Vitus Behring had reached Alaska and claimed it for Catherine of Russia by the year 1741. A Spaniard named Perez visited Nootka Sound in

1774, and Spain, of course, had an ancient claim to the coast. Captain Cook came seeking the North-East Passage around North America in 1778. Captain George Vancouver made excellent surveys of the coast from Vancouver Island northwards between 1792 and 1794. This was the era of exploration.

The next era was that of the fur-traders, who followed hard upon the explorers. First to arrive by land was Alexander Mackenzie, an agent of the North-West Company of Montreal; the inscription painted by him in red letters on a rock near Port Lindsay tells its own story: *Alexander Mackenzie from Canada by land twenty-second of July, Seventeen Hundred and Ninety-three. Latitude 52°, 20M., 48S., North.* David Thompson descended the Columbia River in 1795. Simon Fraser did the same for the turbulent Fraser in 1807.

During the same years the Americans began to arrive by land and sea. The quest of furs for the China trade, which began at once after the Revolution, gave a smart stimulus to interest in this region. Captain Robert Gray of Boston nosed his ship into the mouth of the Columbia River in 1792. In 1804-1805 the famous Lewis and Clark Expedition, sponsored by President Jefferson, came overland from St. Louis to explore the Columbia Valley or Oregon Country. In 1811 John Jacob Astor, the giant of the fur-trade in New York, founded Astoria as a trading post on the Columbia. This was surrendered the following year to the North-West Company as an incident of the War of 1812-1814.

In the following years the rivalry of British and American fur-traders grew more intense. The British traded in Oregon, and the Americans claimed part of British Columbia, but in the long run the two governments were both reasonable and divided the disputed land between them. This gave Canada "windows on the west". Without British Columbia Canada could not have become a nation.



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

INDIAN WARRIORS IN HUGE CANOES; FORT VICTORIA IN BACKGROUND
Paul Kane

THE WAR OF 1812-1814

The Napoleonic Wars contributed something to the development of Canadian national spirit at precisely the time when a stimulus was needed. This was in a roundabout way. War measures of the British angered the Americans, and they directed their land campaigns against Canada, the nearest British possession (page 501). There were hostile movements at intervals along the whole border from coast to coast, but the chief attack was launched against the centre in Upper Canada (Ontario). Fortunately, the Loyalists had enjoyed twenty-five years of peace, during which they had time to build their homes and clear their farms; a generation of children had grown up to whom the new country was a native land. Fathers and sons volunteered manfully to defend their borders and, with the help of regular troops, repulsed the invaders. The French habitants shared in the wave of loyalty that swept the settlements, and were prepared to do their share as called upon.

The victory emboldened the people to demand redress of the grievances from which they suffered under the old-fashioned type of government which had been foisted upon them. The following years were filled with strife. A young nation was being forged upon the anvil.

CHAPTER XLVI

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

A Series of Revolutions—The Rapid Decline of the French Monarchy—Increase of Knowledge—Theory of the "Noble Savage"—"Divine Right" Denied—Influence of Newton's Law of Gravitation—Diderot's Encyclopaedia—Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*—The King Summons the Three Estates—Storming of the Bastille, July 14, 1789—Declaration of the Rights of Man—The New Constitution—The Reign of Terror—The Directory of Five, 1795—Napoleon Bonaparte.

The satisfaction with which the rivals of England witnessed the American colonies winning their independence was turned to panic and dismay by the French Revolution, which followed immediately afterwards. This was not a clean-cut affair like the American Revolution, but a bewildering series of revolutions, which after ten years culminated in a despotism presided over by that wayward genius Napoleon Bonaparte. He conceived plans for the complete reconstruction of Europe, which succeeded for a time and then collapsed, leaving a new Europe very different from the old, but still devoted to the old ideal of the Balance of Power. The present chapters cover the years from 1789 to 1815, when the true nineteenth century begins.

The kingdom of France rose to the zenith of its splendour during the long and colourful reign of the Grand Monarch, Louis XIV, who died in 1715. France had grown steadily stronger as Spain had grown weaker, and France in turn grew steadily weaker as England grew stronger. As regularly happens by a law of history, the descent was more rapid than the rise. In the Seven Years' War France lost her colonial empire to the British in North America. What remained of her treasure after these far-flung and costly campaigns she spent by aiding the American colonies to throw off the rule of her victorious rival, England. This last expenditure made a bankrupt of the kingdom and led to

the assembling of the Estates General, consisting of the higher clergy, the nobles and the representatives of the people, which had not met for 175 years. Then began a chain of catastrophic events which no single man or group of men could long control.

Innumerable causes had contributed to shape the thoughts and feelings that led men to wreck their government with violence and build a new constitution out of the ruins. One by one the misconceptions that had made Europe self-centred and submissive in the Middle Ages had faded away. The recovery of the literature of Greece in the fifteenth century had revived the knowledge of the free and self-governing races of antiquity. Even in the time of Henry VIII a man like Sir Thomas More, the author of *Utopia*, could frame in his mind a state of society where men were better off for the comforts of life than in the world around him. Men also knew vastly more than ever before about the world they lived in. The time-honoured doctrine that the earth was flat had become foolishness; men knew beyond a doubt that by sailing to the westward they could arrive home from the east. If the schoolmen had been so far astray in the matter of geography, might they not be in error also concerning other matters?

In the Middle Ages the schoolmen had triumphantly asserted the superiority of religion to reason, but by this time there was more knowledge to furnish arguments to reason. For the first time the American Indian in his native state had become familiar to the white man, and was thought to be more chaste and sober than the paleface. Thus arose the idea of "the noble savage", which pictured the primitive stages of human life as liberty, and civilization as slavery. "Civilized man is born, lives, and dies in a state of slavery. At his birth he is sewed in swaddling clothes; at his death he is nailed in a coffin; as long as he lives in human form he is fettered by our institutions."

These were the words of a famous Frenchman, Rousseau.

He was mistaken about the American Indian, but he furnished the three watchwords of the coming French republic: Liberty, Equality, Fraternity. The words "Man is born free but is everywhere in chains", were written in a book of his called the *Social Contract*. He maintained that no one can rightly rule except by the consent of the governed; the true sovereign is the people, and legitimate government is based upon a voluntary contract with the citizens. This was a flat denial of the "divine right" of kings.

It was at this time also that the liberty of the English people began to make a sharper impact upon the continental nations, and this was exerted through the brilliant writing of a peppery Frenchman named Voltaire. He lived for a time in England and was greatly inspired by the work of Sir Isaac Newton, who discovered the law of universal gravitation, by which the planets were believed to be held in their orbits. Voltaire thought him greater than an Alexander the Great or a Caesar. The special target of his satirical shafts was the Roman Catholic Church, which seemed to him to be the enemy of reason and free thought everywhere, and was still entrenched in rich properties and high public office in France. On the other hand, he was not a friend of Protestants; he did not believe in their God any more than he believed in the God of Rome. In the language of the time he was not a "theist". He was, however, a "deist"; that is, he believed in God as revealed in nature, not in Divine Scriptures. The difference between these two ideas of God was much discussed in this age of logic, when men had ceased to a certain degree to fight over religion and had begun to argue about it. This, by the way, was a distinct step towards genuine tolerance.

Voltaire contributed much by his popularity to the increase of knowledge. One of his friends named Diderot was encouraged to begin the publication of an encyclopaedia in seventeen volumes. It seems astonishing now that such

an undertaking should have caused a furore, but it aroused even more bitter opposition than books on biological evolution awakened in the nineteenth century. The authors were a brilliant group of learned men in touch with all the new geographical and scientific knowledge of the day. The discovery of the laws governing the movements of the heavenly bodies was then recent, and also an enormous body of geographical information consequent upon the innumerable voyages of discovery. All this was so fascinating that the attention of mankind, it was feared, would be diverted from the more important claims of religion. Seven volumes of the encyclopaedia had been published when the work was ordered to be stopped, but the editor continued it in secret and delivered the remaining ten volumes. The controversy increased the demand and stimulated the instinct that leads men to take sides in every quarrel. The friends of knowledge became enemies of kings and clergy.

Part of the attack upon ignorance and prejudice was directed against the selfish theory of trade known as "mercantilism" (page 489). In the very year that the strangling effect of English Navigation Laws drove the colonies to issue the Declaration of Independence a man named Adam Smith gave to the world his *Wealth of Nations,* one of the most influential books of all time. The fact that he condoned the Navigation Laws did not alter the fact that he set men to thinking about free trade. England was to become a free trade country in the following century. Adam Smith advanced the doctrine that the government should interfere as little as possible in commerce, taking care only to guarantee the safety of trade by land and sea. This was a blow at royal monopolies no less direct than the attacks of Rousseau upon the theory of "divine right".

It was not poverty or hunger that drove the French people to wreck their government. It was the general increase of intelligence, population and prosperity. The Third Estate was already in an ugly mood, exasperated by

the burden of taxation, which the nobility and the clergy escaped, when bankruptcy forced the king to summon the Estates to Paris. Their demand to have the privilege of voting as individuals instead of by classes precipitated the struggle at once. Having been locked out of the assembly hall at Versailles, they went into another building and took an oath to draw up a Constitution for France before separating. The king pretended to yield, and assembled the Three Estates to sit together and decide matters by a majority vote of all present, but at the same time he began to mass troops in Paris.

At this point the hungry people of Paris began a riot that lasted for three days and ended in the capture of the royal prison called the Bastille, July 14, 1789, the anniversary of which is still celebrated like the Fourth of July in the United States. During the same summer the disorders of Paris spread to the provinces, and many houses of the nobility were pillaged. In October the hungry women of Paris organized a riot of their own before the palace at Versailles, and the king with his family finally accompanied them back to the city, promising them bread.

During the following two years a new government was brought into being by the Three Estates sitting as a National Assembly. The peasants were given their land and freed from the necessity of paying tithes to the nobles or the bishops. A Declaration of the Rights of Man was issued after the style of the English Bill of Rights of 1688 and the American Declaration of Independence in 1776. "Men are born free and equal and remain free and equal in rights." "Law is the expression of the general will." These are echoes of Rousseau's doctrines. Freedom of speech, the liberty of the press and the principle of religious toleration were affirmed.

As a means of refilling the empty treasury the lands of the bishops were confiscated and the monasteries suppressed. This action was very satisfactory to the deists,

but it alienated large numbers who were genuinely devoted to the Church. The new Constitution provided for a limited monarchy like that of England, but with only one house, the Legislative Assembly. The king was to have no effective power of veto and no control over army, navy or clergy. This was a steep descent from the Grand Monarchy of Louis XIV.

These radical changes caused a panic among the crowned heads of other countries. In their courts the dispossessed nobles and bishops of France took refuge, stirring up trouble for the new government. Louis XVI made an attempt to escape but was overtaken, brought back and kept as a virtual prisoner. The Emperor Leopold in Vienna and King Frederick William of Prussia, openly assumed the roles of champions of royalty. This meant war, and began a reign of terror in Paris. Sympathy with royalty suddenly became a crime. The instrument of death for royalists was the guillotine, a huge weighted knife suspended between guiding posts, and more sure and merciful than the headsman's axe. Some 2,500 victims are said to have been beheaded in Paris, and four times that number elsewhere. The king and the gay and beautiful queen were among the victims.

It was at the beginning of this Reign of Terror that the famous patriotic hymn, the *Marseillaise*, came into vogue. At the same time the motto of the Republic began to appear upon its banners, Liberty, Equality, Fraternity.

The Republic had been declared on September 22, 1792, but the government was provisional while the National Convention drew up a Constitution. In 1795 the new machinery was judged to be ready for working. The executive was not a President, as nowadays, but a board of five men called the Directory, and chosen by the law-making bodies, which were two, both elective.

By this time the armies of hostile monarchs had been repulsed and France seemed to be on the eve of permanent

peace, when the wayward genius, Napoleon Bonaparte, came to the fore, and for the next twenty years the history of Europe was little more than his biography. In the short space of six years the absolute monarchy had been changed into a limited monarchy, and this in turn into a republic. The republic was destined to be changed into an empire, with Napoleon at its head.

CHAPTER XLVII

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

Napoleon's Resentment—First Military Successes in Italy—Failure of the Egytian Expedition—Napoleon Becomes First Consul—Two Successes against Austria—Reforms in France—Napoleon is Crowned as Emperor.

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF EUROPE.—Nature of his Plans—Genius, Ambition and Opportunity—End of the Holy Roman Empire, 1806—The Berlin Decree directed against England—The Beautification of Paris—The Campaign in Spain—Napoleon Dreams of Founding a Dynasty—The Failure of the Russian Campaign—His Downfall—Dissolution of Napoleon's Empire, 1814 and 1815—Permanent Consequences of Napoleon's Career.

Napoleon Bonaparte (b. 1769) was not a Frenchman by birth, but a Corsican, and his native language was Italian. Like many other conquerors, including Genghis Khan and Tamerlane, he bore a sort of resentment towards mankind, a reflex from prodigious vanity. His poverty galled him, and for want of pocket money he spent in solitary study much of his time at the French military school where he was educated. He saturated himself with the writings of Plutarch and other ancients, and he distinguished himself a little in geography and mathematics. Even in these youthful days he waged campaigns on paper, and conquered empires in his waking dreams. Towards other students he was truculent in his manners, and launched himself with fury upon any boy who dared to intrude himself upon his privacy. Nothing of the kind would have happened if his parents had been even moderately prosperous. He despised the world that had treated him so unfairly and he was resolved to have his revenge, if the opporunity ever came, by cutting a dashing career through it.

Just what course this career would take was not yet determined, but the opportunity came. It was under the Directory in 1795. He married a beautiful West Indian



EUROPE AT THE HEIGHT OF NAPOLEON'S POWER, 1812

lady, Josephine de Beauharnais, and through her friends and others got a commission to drive the English out of Toulon in southern France. He did this with despatch, and then gained command of a demoralized French army under orders to operate against Sardinia and Austria in northern Italy. He defeated them both by defeating them separately, and he also did his best to prevent his starved and ragged soldiers from robbing the country and his greedy officers from plundering the military chest. For the time being his zeal was for republics, and he established a new one in Italy while he put an end to an aged one. The latter was Venice, which had endured long enough; the last Doge, as the ruler of this medieval anachronism continued to call himself, was ninety years old, and dropped dead as he gave up his office. Napoleon kept a brilliant court in Italy, surrounded by the local beauties and nobles, but he came back to Paris plainly dressed and in humble mien. He had by this time discovered himself to be an excellent actor.

His next step was to gain permission to conduct an expedition to Egypt and India, a plan as wild as any he had conceived and carried out on paper in the days when he was whiling away his lonesomeness as an obscure student. It threatened no immediate harm to the English, because there was no Suez Canal as yet and Egypt was in Turkish hands. For all that, a British fleet commanded by Vice-Admiral Nelson was on the watch, and only by sheer chance failed to intercept the French ships. Napoleon reached Egypt, dispersed the Turkish cavalry with his artillery, and pitched his camp among the pyramids. Soon afterwards the French admiral was caught napping and lost his fleet in the battle of Aboukir Bay, 1798. Undismayed, Napoleon set out for India by land, but came to grief at Acre, which was now defended by the English with French guns recently captured. There was nothing to do but return ingloriously to Egypt and await news from home. This proved to be good; the Directory was losing prestige every day. At the first

opportunity Napoleon abandoned his army and set sail in two small ships, which miraculously escaped capture.

It might have been thought that he would seek Paris with a humble and contrite heart, but an extraordinary destiny was attending him for a while. His disasters were not sufficiently well known to distract attention from the bungling of the government and the generals in nearer fields. It was only remembered that he had previously conquered against amazing odds. In the meanwhile, his ambitions had expanded rapidly, and it needed only a quiet conspiracy backed by obedient soldiers to upset the tottering Directory and make himself the chief of all. The new government was a republic, but instead of five weak heads it had one strong one, and that was Napoleon, with the title of First Consul. There were two other consuls, for Roman ideals were much in mind, but they were separated from the First Consul by a wide interval.

Surrounded by a ring of hostile countries, France was content to have a military man at its head, and it was essential that the First Consul should justify himself by speedy victories. It was precisely this that Napoleon was qualified to do, and it was part of the good luck that was for a time attending him that the armies of his enemies were commanded by old-fashioned, middle-aged generals. In 1800 he emulated Hannibal by crossing the Alps, artillery and all, and taking the Austrians by surprise. The victory of Marengo enabled him to re-establish the Italian Republic, which had collapsed during his mad excursion to Egypt. In December of the same year one of his generals inflicted another telling blow upon Austria at Hohenlinden. The First Consul had not only completely justified his self-election as First Consul, but he had also inspired genuine respect for himself among his foes.

These gains at home and abroad placed him in a position to do constructive work. He had already put an end to the obsolete Venetian Republic. He now took the first step

towards terminating the equally obsolete Holy Roman Empire, by taking over that part of its domains which lay west of the Rhine. This meant the dispossession of so many German princes that, in order to re-imburse them, the organization of the old medieval German states was completely overhauled by the German Emperor. This was done by secularizing the lands of bishops and abbots and giving them adequate pensions in cash by way of compensation. Just as this was the first step towards dissolving the Holy Roman Empire, so it was also the first step towards the creation of the German Empire with Prussia, instead of Austria, at its head. It was also in these same years that Napoleon, always a great planner, thought of a new colonial design in the West Indies. Suddenly changing his mind, he sold the Louisiana Territory to the United States in 1803, a rich windfall for the fortunate young Republic in America.

At home he improved the government and gave France peace and self-confidence. He made a Concordat with the Pope, released the parish priests from prison, revived the Sabbath, which the first Republic had abolished, and reverted to the old calendar, which had also been abolished. He allowed 40,000 exiled families to return home, and admitted their right to hold public office, although their lands were not restored. He built canals and roads. A committee was appointed to codify the laws, which were issued as the *Code Napoleon*. Its outstanding merit was to recognize the equality of all men before the law, and this benefit was extended beyond the borders of France itself, especially to the adjacent parts of Germany, Holland, Belgium and Italy.

Meanwhile, between 1800 and 1804, the star of Napoleon's destiny was reaching its highest elevation, and this began to tell upon his vanity. In May, 1804, he took the title of Emperor and in December was crowned. Unlike Charlemagne in the year 800, however, he did not go to Rome for the ceremony; the Pope came to Paris instead,


Scale of miles
0 100 200 300 400
Boundary of Belgium in 1830
Boundary of the German Confederation
UNITED KINGDOM
SCOTLAND
GREAT BRITAIN
IRELAND
AND IRELAND
NORTH SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
English Channel
KINGDOM OF FRANCE
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL
PYRENEES
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
BALEARIC IS.
MINORCA
MAJORCA
CORSICA
SARDINIA
KINGDOM OF SARDINIA
KINGDOM OF THE NETHERLANDS
KINGDOM OF HANOVER
KINGDOM OF SAXONY
KINGDOM OF BAVARIA
KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG
KINGDOM OF WESTPHALIA
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
KINGDOM OF NORWAY
SWEDEN
GERMANY
CONFEDERATION
SWITZERLAND
ALGERIA
TUNIS
MOROCCO
AFRICA
London
Oxford
Cambridge
Amsterdam
Paris
Boulogne
Calais
Ostend
Ghent
Brussels
Antwerp
Ham
Strasbourg
Heidelberg
Frankfort
Carlsruhe
Weimar
Berlin
Munich
Zurich
Geneva
Lyons
Milan
Verona
Venice
Trieste
Genoa
Turin
Rome
Naples
Tours
Bordeaux
Madrid
Lisbon
Algiers
Tunis
Malta
Longitude 5° West 0° 5° 10° Longitude
15° 10° 5° 0° 5° 10°
55° 50° 45° 40° 35°

EUROPE


G. of Bothnia
FINLAND
Gulf of Finland
Petrograd
35°
40°
45°
Stockholm
ESTHONIA
Volga R.
55°
LATVIA
Moscow
Riga
Duna R.
LITHUANIA
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
50°
Vistula R.
Warsaw
POLAND
Dniester R.
Dnieper R.
Troppau
GALICIA
Olmütz
Vienna
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
Pruth R.
Sea of Azov
45°
Budapest
MOLDAVIA
CRIMEA
HUNGARY
Theiss R.
Sebastopol
Save R.
WALLACHIA
BLACK SEA
BOSNIA
SERBIA
Danube R.
BULGARIA
TURKISH EMPIRE
MONTENEGRO
Adrianople
San Stefano
Constantinople
40°
ADRIATIC SEA
MACEDONIA
Salonica
ASIATIC TURKEY
Smyrna
HUNGARY
CROATIA
SLAVONIA
IONIAN SEA
Athens
GREECE
MOREA
35°
CYPRUS
CRETE
Wms. Engr. Co., N. Y.
East
20°
from
25°
Greenwich
30°
35°

1815

and in the end Napoleon seized the crown from his hands, placed it upon the head of Josephine and then upon his own. He had crowned himself. This was in the church of Notre Dame.

The Reconstruction of Europe

The keynote of what occurred in the ensuing years is revealed in the following utterance of Napoleon: "There will be no rest in Europe until it is under a single chief—an emperor who shall have kings for officers, who shall distribute kingdoms to his lieutenants, and shall make this one king of Italy, that one of Bavaria; this one ruler of Switzerland, that one governor of Holland, each one having an office of honour in the imperial household."

These words compel us to classify the man with Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar and Genghis Khan. His ambition was to be King of Kings, Khan of Khans. His ideals had their origin in the tales of conquering heroes in which he had saturated his mind during the lonely years of his poverty and obscurity. He was now resolved to fight out on terra firma the grand campaigns which in his solitary boyhood he had executed on paper. Natural gifts and intense study had prepared him for this career. A ferocious pride and ambition furnished the goad. Fortune bestowed the opportunity.

A sure instinct informed him that the chief obstacle to his success would be England. In preparation for transporting an army to her shores, a project almost as wild as his dream of striking a blow at her power in India by invading Egypt, he began to collect troops at Boulogne. This force was diverted against Austria with characteristic suddenness in August, 1805, because she had formed an alliance with Russia, Sweden and England. A whole Austrian army was captured at Ulm in October, and Napoleon entered Vienna in November. From there he turned northward to crush the combined Austrian and Rus-

sian forces at Austerlitz. By the Treaty of Pressburg the German Emperor was compelled to recognize the independence of so many little German kingdoms that the Holy Roman Empire became a farce. It came to an end by Emperor's abdication in August, 1806, a memorable date. The loss of the old title was offset by the assumption of a new one, Emperor of Austria.

It was part of the good luck still attending Napoleon that Prussia had stood aloof from the war that ended at Austerlitz. Napoleon was now in a position to deal with her singly, which he did, first by insults, and then by victory at Jena, 1806. This jolt awoke Prussia from a self-satisfaction that had lasted since the time of Frederick the Great, but it was only after Napoleon's time that she was able to profit by the reforms so immediately carried out. In the meantime, Napoleon marched eastward, won more victories, took territory from Prussia and Russia, created new independent states in Poland and Germany, and then proceeded to close all the ports of Europe under his control against British ships. This is styled the Berlin Decree. England retorted by a counter-blockade and was in a better position to enforce it, because she had become more completely than ever Mistress of the Seas by the victory of Trafalgar in 1805, where the combined fleets of France and Spain were destroyed. It was this English embargo that so injured American commerce as to bring on the War of 1812-1814 between England and the United States.

By the year 1808 Napoleon had become a despot, but he still had something to contribute to the pattern of modern France as it still exists. Louis XIV had built the suburban palace at Versailles. The new despot bestowed his favours upon the city itself. Like Caesar Augustus, who believed that since Rome had become the capital of an empire it ought to resemble one, he transformed the drab, medieval Paris into a modern city with beautiful bridges, monumental quays, and wide streets. The famous Arch of Triumph, the

largest in the world, was erected to remind citizens and visitors of his victories. Thus Paris, just as Versailles had become a model to Grand Monarchs everywhere, became a model to the capital cities of European and even South American States. To satisfy the pride of merit Napoleon also established the order known as the Legion of Honour. No one ever understood better how to gratify the pride of his countrymen.

The cloud on the horizon appeared from the quarter of Spain. In 1808 Napoleon deposed the king, and promoted his brother Joseph to his place. He went himself soon afterwards, and won an effective but inglorious victory over inferior troops, abolished the Inquisition, the feudal system, and two thirds of the monasteries; this was a shock that Spain deserved. Portugal, however, was friendly to England, and it was possible there for a British force to have a safe base of operations by land. Sir Arthur Wellesley, later Duke of Wellington, was the commander, and step by step the French were driven back to the Pyrenees. It required some years, of course, for this movement to reveal its importance.

The high point of the curve of Napoleon's fortune was reached in 1809 and 1810. In the former year it was necessary to chastise Austria again, which was accomplished by the battle of Wagram, and the indemnity required was a royal princess. The bride who ascended into the place of the childless Josephine was Maria Louisa, great-granddaughter of Maria Theresa. The last infirmity of a self-made despot is to found a dynasty, and this was now Napoleon's hope and plan. The child born to him was promptly given the title of King of Rome; Napoleon had reclaimed from the Pope the Papal States bestowed upon him by Pepin, King of France, in 756. He now annexed Holland, which had been ruled by his brother Louis for a time. He was in control of all continent Europe from the Baltic to the Adriatic. Prussia and Austria had been

cowed, and only Russia remained outside. It was this vast hinterland of Europe that lured the victor to his doom.

The size of Napoleon's forces had steadily grown, for compulsory military service had been begun, and the army he collected on the Russian frontier numbered 400,000. The well advised Russian generals adopted Mongol tactics and fell back before him; Moscow was captured but the enemy burned it over the victor's head. The enforced retreat was not begun early enough, and the sufferings of the grand army in the bleak and shelterless wilderness of snow are one of the tragedies of European history. In the meantime his enemies were beginning a war of liberation in the rear. Only 20,000 had survived from the Russian campaign, but no fewer than 600,000 men were mobilized to crush the armies combined to oppose him in Central Europe. These allies were of so many races that the Battle of Leipzig which followed in 1814 is also called the Battle of the Nations.

The story of Napoleon's subsequent flight from Paris, his capture, his exile on the Island of Elba, his escape, his return, and the battle of Waterloo, in 1815, mark the swift descent of his fortunes to the ground. It was the English who gave him the *coup de grace*, which was very fitting, because he always knew them to be his most dangerous opponent. He spent his remaining six years on the lonely Island of St. Helena, an emperor to the last, with no empire except in his own mind, just as it had been in the brooding days of his early poverty, when he waged wars on sheets of paper.

The new map of Europe created by Napoleon was out of date even before the battle of Waterloo. He had tried to make a unit of it by force of arms, which was impossible. By the Treaty of Paris in 1814 the allies deprived France of all she had annexed since 1792. They welcomed the return of the country into the circle of kingdoms under the rule of a Bourbon with the title Louis XVIII. Holland became a kingdom under the House of Orange. Germany

became a confederation of states, though the number was less than before. Switzerland was recognized as independent. Other changes were made at the famous Congress of Vienna in 1815. Italy was dismembered again, Austria receiving Venetia and Lombardia. Sweden and Norway were united by a personal union under a single king. In Central Europe Prussia and Russia disagreed over the spoils but both gained territory, and the wishes of the people concerned were not consulted.

The effects of Napoleon's career were felt in many lands. His sale of the Louisiana Territory hastened the development of the United States by doubling its area. His embargo against British commerce embroiled the United States and England in the War of 1812-1814. His deposition of the king of Spain in 1808 started the independence movements in Mexico, Central and South America, which destroyed Europe's oldest colonial empire. In Europe the old republics of Genoa and Venice disappeared from the maps. The Holy Roman Empire was terminated in 1806. Scores of small German states were absorbed into larger ones. The system of compulsory military service for all males came into favour. This was a measure that strengthened the monarchies, but it was never adopted in England. Her strength was in the navy. From the date of the battle of Trafalgar in 1805 she was undisputed Mistress of the Seas until the end of the century.

So far as France is concerned it must be remembered that her true destiny was to become a republic. Napoleon delayed the achievement of this destiny by half a century or more. By making himself an emperor and a despot he betrayed the cause of liberty and thrust himself into the same class as the Grand Monarchs. Through his genius, which had fed upon the history of the great conquerors of ancient times, he developed a superb military organization which was to be a dangerous example for the surviving monarchs of Europe. He turned back the clock of time. He

revived the outworn ideals of the Roman Empire. He checked the peaceful progress of Liberalism and parliamentary government. He made possible the Second Empire of his vain-glorious nephew Napoleon III. It was not until 1871 and afterwards that his country found its way back to the main highway from which his erring genius had misled it.

PART VI

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY
1815-1920

CHAPTER XLVIII

THE WORLD IN 1815

Limits of the Century, 1815-1920—Asia and Africa in 1815—The Americas in 1815—The Balance of Power in Europe.

General Trend of the Century.—The Industrial Revolution—Humanitarianism—Marx's *Communist Manifesto*—Famous Inventions—The Theory of Evolution—English Parliamentary Government—French Nationalism—The American Republican Pattern—Free Land and Immigration in America.

The series of calamities that rocked the nations of Europe during the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars did not cease until 1815. The usual post-war depression followed, which lasted for a generation. About the middle of the century, the nations entered upon a period of unexampled progress and prosperity, which continued until the outbreak of the Great War in 1914. The Great War itself belongs almost as logically with the nineteenth as the Napoleonic Wars with the eighteenth. Consequently, the limits are 1815-1920.

In 1815 Central Asia was an unknown area. China was still a closed country; only one port, Canton, was open to foreign ships. Japan was a hermit state, conceding limited trading privileges to the Dutch and Chinese only. In India the Mogul Dynasty survived after a fashion. The British held Bombay, Madras, Bengal and Bihar; they exercised a protectorate over other parts but not over the Punjab and Sind; the rivalry of Russia and Great Britain on the northern frontier had not yet begun. The monopoly of the East India Company in trade had been cancelled in 1813, and at the same time access to the country had been given to Christian missionaries as well as to private traders.

Africa was still the dark continent, awaiting the explorations of the nineteenth century. There was as yet no Suez Canal. The English were holding Cape Town for the sake

of the sea route to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope. The Dutch farmers were established in the south, and the Portuguese possessed small colonies on both east and west coasts. Slave-traders still practised their nefarious calling, purchasing negroe captives for red cotton handkerchiefs, glass beads and rum, to supply with labour the sugar and cotton plantations of America. Mohammedan princes continued to rule Morocco, Algeria and Egypt.

In South America and Mexico the Spanish colonies were engaged in the struggle for independence. The United States were preparing to drive the Spaniard out of Florida as part of the general project of "attaining their natural boundaries". In what is now called Canada, except for fur-trading posts, there were two groups of settlements, the Atlantic Provinces and the interior Provinces of Ontario and Quebec on the St. Lawrence. These were about to enter upon a protracted struggle between the settlers and the governors for the prize of responsible government. In the meantime the country played no part in World History. Fifty years later it began to play a very important role, when the provinces were united in 1867.

In Europe after 1815 a new arrangement of national powers appears. The Spanish fleet had dwindled away, the French fleet had been destroyed, and the British navy remained supreme. Britannia ruled the waves. No more, as in the previous centuries, was she willing to engage in continental wars. Her chief interest was to protect her commerce and her food-supply, which was more and more drawn from overseas. The chief continental powers were Prussia, Austria and Russia. All of these were fearing fresh republican movements in France at the same time that they feared one another. This mutual fear brought about various alliances, which characterized the century. The purpose always was to maintain the so-called Balance of Power. Mutual fears also led to more and more military preparation, which in the long run was a chief cause of the Great War.

General Trend of the Century

There is, of course, no discontinuity in history. Each event is preceded by others which are its causes, and followed by others which are its effects. This chain of cause and effect has no end in either direction. We may trace it backwards to a certain distance, and we may do our best to follow it down to the present from some given moment in the past. A very obvious example of the continuity of history in the early nineteenth century is the extension to South America of the independence movement that began in North America with the revolt of the English colonies. This will be sketched in the following chapter. Under the same heading belongs the War of Independence in Greece, which began in 1821, though the influence of the French Revolution must also have been very powerful in this instance.

Other movements are less obvious than wars, but by no means less important. One main line of causation may be traced as follows. In England in the eighteenth century the growth of iron industries threatened to exhaust the supply of firewood, which was used in melting iron. This caused an increased use of coal, which in turn made it necessary to pump water out of the mines to prevent flooding. To work the pumps the steam-engine was first brought into use. From the mines the use of steam-engines was extended to cotton factories to drive spinning and weaving machines.

The use of power-driven machinery, in its turn, made it possible to employ not only able-bodied men but also multitudes of women and children. The misery of this class, especially of mothers and little children, who often worked more than twelve hours per day, gradually awakened a profound feeling of sympathy among the people at large. This sympathy was extended to include the victims of harsh laws and also the insane. In those days men were hanged for stealing a horse or setting fire to a haystack, while the insane were kept in chains and exhibited as curiosities. At

the same time the majority of men were growing less intolerant in religion, and became willing to allow more freedom to Dissenters and to Roman Catholics. This feeling of sympathy for mankind is known as Humanitarianism. To it was due the abolition of negro slavery in the British Empire.

In the course of time many improvements were made in the conditions of the poor, but progress was so slow that some of their leaders began to declare that the whole structure of society would have to be changed if the working classes were to receive justice. Thus came into being the movement that is called Socialism. Like all new methods of thought it began in a small way, gained strength slowly, and then suddenly captured the attention of Europe and America. This movement occurred around the year 1848, when Karl Marx issued his *Communist Manifesto*, calling upon the working classes of all countries to unite. Ever since that time the tendency to socialistic change, and the fear of socialistic change on the part of certain classes have been powerful moulding forces both in individual countries and in the world at large.

At the same time the lure of the wealth to be won by manufacturing, the new desire to serve mankind, and the increase of scientific knowledge combined to turn the energies of intellectual men towards useful inventions. Thus came the locomotive, the steam-boat, the electric telegraph and submarine cable, electric motors, dynamos and lights. So great was the number of useful inventions in the nineteenth century that more progress was achieved in this particular field than in the whole previous history of the world.

The idea of Progress in human affairs had been inherited from the eighteenth century, and played a strong role in the various revolutionary movements. In the nineteenth this was overshadowed, and eventually almost displaced, by the theory of Evolution. Properly this idea belongs to the

sphere of plant and animal life, proposing the hypothesis that the various forms of living things were not created as they are, but were developed from one another during millions of years, the higher from the lower. This theory seemed to contradict received ideas of the creation of the world and living things, causing a revolution of thought. As the years went by the theory of evolution was transferred to other fields, such as human society and government, which meant the rewriting of all history. This intellectual movement became pronounced after the publication of Charles Darwin's *Origin of Species* in 1859, one of the most influential books of all time.

In the sphere of politics and government the main trend was in the direction of the English parliamentary system with freedom of speech and of the Press. This movement took the name of Liberalism in all European countries. It came into conflict with autocracy, especially in Germany and Austria. A similar impact was made by French nationalism, which took the form of parliamentary government with a written Constitution, equality of all men before the law, and freedom of speech and of the Press. All nations yielded to this Anglo-French influence but were foiled by cross-currents of Socialism, which divided the forces of reform into several camps and helped to defeat them all. Because of these divisions the autocrats were able to prolong their rule until the end of the Great War.

In the New World the American variety of Anglo-Saxon parliamentary government, under republican names, was adopted in all Latin-American countries, just as the Anglo-French models were adopted in Europe. During the latter part of the century the Dominion of Canada developed into a self-governing unit with a marked resemblance to the American model. Before the Great War its example was exerting a manifest influence upon other British countries, namely, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa.

The development of the United States was accompanied

by a peaceful and voluntary immigration upon a scale so vast that nothing equal to it is recorded in the whole history of the human race. First the Irish, Scotch and English began to cross the Atlantic to the United States, to be followed later by multitudes from all the countries of Europe. Half the labouring population of Ireland arrived in the middle of the century; between 1901 and 1910 alone the number entering from Europe was 3,823,694. The chief lure of these multitudes was the hope of employment, or the offer of free land, which remained available even down to the outbreak of the Great War. It had the effect of undermining the strength of landlordism in Europe, although the final collapse of that system was postponed until the revolutions occurred that were a result of the War. In North America itself the offer of cheap or free land and the demand for capital served to cancel the influence of Socialism; the United States and Canada display the maximum resistance to that movement.

CHAPTER XLIX

EXTENSION OF THE AMERICAN PATTERN

Changes in South America—Beginnings of Independence—Plans of Simon Bolivar—Rebellion in Argentina and Chili—Liberation of Peru—Foundation of Bolivia—the New United States of Mexico—The Empire of Brazil—Latin-American Constitutions—South American Disunity.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE.—American Conquest of Florida—Effect of the Monroe Doctrine.

THE INDEPENDENCE OF GREECE.—The War of Independence—The Great Powers Impose a King.

No sooner was the American Revolution complete in 1783 than ships from New York and Boston on their way to China began to call at South American ports, especially Santiago in Chili. The enthusiasm for freedom was new, and ship-captains were proud to hand over to their South American brethren a copy of the Declaration of Independence. Thus "the sacred fire of liberty was lighted". Previous events had been easing the way towards revolution. The Pacific was no longer a Spanish sea; this had been conceded by the Nootka Sound Convention between Spain and England in 1790. The age of piracy had come to an end and European ships, instead of being convoyed in squadrons once a year to Panama, were coming freely and at all seasons across the Atlantic directly to Buenos Aires. This new freedom of the seas loosened the bonds of the Spanish provinces. Venezuela and Colombia, fronting on the Caribbean Sea, had seen Spain losing half of the West Indies. The Argentines had been compelled to defend themselves unaided against the Portuguese across the Rio de la Plata, who claimed and occupied what is now Uruguay. Chili's remoteness invited it to independence. All American-born Spaniards, that is, creoles, smarted under the contempt of government officials sent from Spain. Why should they be insulted and robbed of the wealth of the only native

land they knew? Might they not, like the English colonists, assume the responsibility of governing themselves?

Nevertheless, the time was not ripe for rebellion. The opportune moment arrived when Napoleon interfered in the affairs of Spain and Portugal in 1808 (page 552). Within two years after this date the revolt was flourishing in all Spanish-American countries. Subsequent events revealed that the American plan had been well studied. The outstanding champion of liberty in the Caribbean provinces was Simon Bolivar. He had been educated in Europe and had travelled in the United States. He was an idealist. He dreamed of forming a great republic to be called the United States of Colombia, including his own native state of Venezuela, Colombia (New Granada), and Ecuador. This dream was almost realized. In 1813 he made himself master of Caracas and lost it again, going into exile. In 1819 a second attempt was successful and he became President and Dictator of the new Republic of Venezuela. He next effected the liberation of Colombia and became its President. Ecuador was added to this, and from 1822 to 1830 the three new States were under one rule. Then they fell apart.

In the meantime a similar plan of rebellion and union was afoot in Buenos Aires. The ideal of the patriots in this section was the United Provinces of La Plata, but Uruguay and Paraguay failed to come in. The military hero of the struggle was a native son called San Martin, who had fought as an officer in Spanish Wars in Europe. He urged the adoption of a Declaration of Independence, which was issued in 1816. The plans of San Martin, however, included more than La Plata. He was determined to drive the king's troops completely out of South America. In 1817 he led his army over a mountain pass 12,000 feet high, and established liberty in Chili. A Declaration of Independence was issued there in 1818.

In Chili San Martin remained more than two years preparing soldiers and ships for the liberation of Peru. This

expedition, which included an Englishman named Lord Cochrane, set sail in 1820, and the independence of Peru was proclaimed in the public square of Lima the following year. Meanwhile, Simon Bolivar had arrived with an army from Colombia on the same errand as San Martin. The two famous leaders held a memorable meeting in Guayaquil and San Martin agreed to leave the war to Bolivar. The latter's able colleague, General Sucre, defeated the royalist troops once and for all at Ayacucho in 1824.

By this time only Charcas remained in the control of the royal armies. It fell to General Sucre without a battle, and its independence was proclaimed in 1825. It was rechristened the Republic of Bolivia in honour of Bolivar. The name of the ancient capital Chuquisaca was changed to Sucre in honour of his capable general. This completed the liberation of South America.

In Mexico the rebellion began at the same time as elsewhere and pursued a similar course. The first hero of the revolution was named Hidalgo, who, after some successes, was captured and shot by royalist troops. He was succeeded by a patriotic priest named Morelos, who resisted longer but was also captured and shot. Nevertheless, the rebels fought on. In 1820 the Viceroy sent a general named Augustin de Iturbide to crush them. This nimble man made terms with the rebels, and after some clever manoeuvring overpowered the Viceroy and had himself elected Emperor Augustin I. This Mexican Empire was declared to be independent of Spain, and all classes, both creoles and Indians, were to have a share in the government. The religion of the country was to be Roman Catholicism. Central America joined with Mexico, and for a time Augustin I ruled supreme from San Francisco to Panama.

The Emperor, however, was regarded as an upstart and was forced to resign after two years. Internal change and external trouble marked the course of the following years.

In 1824 a Constitution was framed, and the United States of Mexico came into existence. The Republics of Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Salvador and Costa Rica arose between 1823 and 1841.

The same events that awoke the Spanish provinces brought changes in Brazil. In 1807 the royal family of Portugal fled from Napoleon's armies, escorted by an English fleet, and established its throne in Rio de Janeiro. From this year until 1822 a European king ruled in America. In the latter year Brazil became an empire independent of Portugal. Since 1889 it has been a republic under the name United States of Brazil, after the well known American pattern.

This American pattern of government was adopted in all the new Spanish Republics within a few years. Each of them called together a Congress and drew up a written Constitution. In each case this provided for the creation of bodies similar to the Senate, the House of Representatives, and the Supreme Court of the United States. The Constitutions also provide for Presidents to act as the heads of the governments.

With these elements the similarity to the American pattern ceases. All efforts to unite the new States failed. Venezuela, Colombia and Ecuador were parted after only eight years, 1822-1830. The United Provinces of La Plata failed to bring in Uruguay and Paraguay. The union of all the South American States is now too remote a possibility to be discussed. Each State is jealous of its own independence. At the present time the union of countries speaking various languages in Europe is quite as conceivable as the union of Spanish-speaking countries in South America. The division of Spanish America into many separate republics has naturally prevented it from becoming a world power, and at the same time increases in proportion the importance and prestige of the United States of North America.

The Monroe Doctrine

The only parts of Spanish America that remained unaffected by the independence movement that began in 1808 were Cuba and Florida. The latter included the shorelands of the Gulf of Mexico almost as far as New Orleans, and was divided into East and West Florida. The latter was seized by the Americans in 1810, and East Florida would have met the same fate in 1813 if the United States had not been engaged in war with England. In 1817 the raids of the Seminole Indians upon American whites afforded a cause of war, and General Andrew Jackson, the prince of Indian fighters, was sent to subdue them. The campaign was finished in four months. In 1819 Florida was surrendered. Spain retained Cuba. The American government was not yet interested in islands.

The acquisition of Florida cleared the way for a definite statement of policy on the part of the United States. They could now safely recognize the new republics of South America, but this was not sufficient. In Europe the old monarchies became strong and assertive after the Napoleonic Wars. Russia, Prussia, Austria and France were in open sympathy with the king of Spain. Therefore, the President of the United States in 1822 issued a warning in his message to Congress:

> We owe it to candour and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare that we would consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety.

The Monroe Doctrine, as it is called after the president who uttered it, has been the corner-stone of American foreign policy. It was aimed in the first instance against France, which had designs upon Mexico, and against Russia, which was already in possession of Alaska, but other nations were not excluded. It signified that the world was to be diverted into two distinct hemispheres, and that Europe was to leave the two Americas to themselves. It had

the effect of turning the colonizing enterprises of European nations towards Africa and Asia. The availability of these continents, on the other hand, made the policy feasible. This Monroe Doctrine has been, ever since, an outstanding factor in World History.

The Independence of Greece

While President Monroe was warning the monarchs of Europe to refrain from interfering in the affairs of the Western Hemisphere, the Greeks in south-eastern Europe were fighting for their independence against the Turks. This struggle was the last in the series that began with the American Revolution and was continued in the French Revolution and in the revolt of the American colonies against Spain. If Greece had been a small country in the heart of Europe no rebellion would have been possible. The very core of resistance to all liberty movements was in Central Europe. The Greeks, however, inhabited a peninsula, numerous islands, and the coast of Asia Minor, just as in ancient times. They made their living chiefly by trade, and their little ships were home to a large part of the population.

Because they were living under a despotism the only way to start the liberty movement was to organize secret societies, which they began to do in 1815. Open warfare began in 1821. The Greeks were beaten in the north but successful in the Morea (ancient Peloponnesus). Independence was declared Jan. 1, 1822. The Turks retaliated by wholesale massacres, and the sympathies of Europe were aroused. In 1827 England, Russia and France pledged themselves to give assistance. The Turkish fleet had already been destroyed by the Greeks. The Egyptian fleet, which was summoned by the Turks, was destroyed at Navarino in October, 1827.

The independence of Greece was recognized in 1829, but European monarchies could not permit her to revive

the democracy of ancient times. A German king was given her, Prince Otto of Bavaria. The allies were also niggardly in the concessions of territory. The Turks retained the islands and cities along the coast of Asia Minor.

The new kingdom included only the poorest land and the less prosperous representatives of the Greek race. Nevertheless it survived. England and France protected it for fear Russia might take it under her wing. Russia protected it, not being able to possess it. All three protected it, because they were unfriendly to the Turks. This is a specimen of the working of the Balance of Power, the principle that dominated the policy of European countries during the nineteenth century.

CHAPTER L

SOCIALISM, TRADE AND POPULATION

Unforeseen Division of Society.

RISE OF SOCIALISM.—Three Phases of Socialism—Socialism as a Doctrine—Socialism as a Movement—Socialism as an Educational Force—Definition of Socialism—The Spread of Socialism—Socialism in Free Countries—Socialism in France—France Becomes a Non-socialistic Republic.

ENGLAND.—Rise of New Cities in England—The Moderate Reform of 1832—Adoption of Free Trade in England—Extension of the Franchise in 1867 and after.

THE UNITED STATES.—American Invention of the Cotton-Gin—Invention of Agricultural Machinery—High Wage-Scales in the United States—Indifference to Socialism.

SOCIALISM UNDER AUTOCRACIES

GERMANY, AUSTRIA AND RUSSIA.—Defeat of Socialism in Germany—Gift of Socialistic Reforms—Socialistic Conspiracies in Russia—The Duma Assembled in 1905.

INCREASE IN TRADE AND POPULATION.—Increase Common to Europe and America—Growth of Cities—New Foods and Comforts—Quest of New Markets—New Colonial Policy.

The truth of the saying that history is the evolution of the unforeseen is well exemplified by the changes that took place in the nineteenth century. During its early years, when steam-driven machines were coming into use, it was not foreseen that a new social class would be created, the factory-workers. As they grew in numbers and people learned of their many hardships, long hours, low wages, wretched homes and desperate illnesses, the first reaction was one of pity. This is to say, it was humanitarian; it ran parallel to the new-born sympathy for all unfortunates, the criminal, the insane and the slave. It was not foreseen, however, that this new class would reject humanitarianism and attempt to work out a solution of its own for its own distresses. It was not foreseen that the social centre of gravity was about to shift, and that a day was coming when kings and princes would no longer be of supreme impor-

tance, nor nobles, nor the higher clergy, nor even the State itself, but mankind.

Society in Europe, for more than a thousand years, had been divided horizontally into peasants, artisans, tradesmen, merchants, landlords and princes. While these distinctions still prevailed, a new vertical split in society manifested itself, the line between those who worked in factories and those who owned them. The owners were the capitalists. They were, like the workers, an unforeseen result of the Industrial Revolution. They complied very grudgingly with humane laws passed from time to time for the protection of the lives and health of their employees. The latter soon reached the conviction that no mere humanitarian movement would ever remedy their wrongs, and began to discuss manners and means of promoting their own interests. By the middle of the century this movement had taken shape definitely under the name of Socialism.

Socialism

It is now a century since this word was first used, and it has come to denote three things: (a) a doctrine, (b) an organized movement, and (c) a transforming educational force in society.

As a doctrine the greatest debt of Socialism is to Karl Marx, an educated German who made a study of the English factory system while still in its crudest and cruellest stage. Before his time many men from Plato's days to his own had planned ideal Republics on paper, which they imagined would be superior to any that existed in reality. All these were regarded by Marx as specimens of "Utopian Socialism". His own doctrines, he claimed, exemplified "Scientific Socialism"; they were based upon a rational study of history, which he analysed as a long series of struggles of class against class. From this point of view Socialism has been defined by an eminent scholar as "the struggle of the working-class, or proletariat, to free itself

from the domination of capitalism, and establish a new classless society collectively controlled in the interests of the whole people." This means, of course, abolishing poverty and unemployment, turning private property into public property, and dividing profits either equally or at least generously among all. The best known writings of Marx were his *Communist Manifesto* (1848) and his *Capital* (1867); the latter has often been called the Bible of Socialism; it is certainly one of the most influential books ever written.

As a movement, Socialism has run a course very much like the Protestant Revolutions of the sixteenth century. There are to-day as many kinds of socialists as of Protestants, differing from one another according to countries and populations. This has turned out quite contrary to the plans of Marx: in 1848 he issued a trumpet call in his *Manifesto,* "Proletarians of all countries, unite!" In 1864 he launched the International Working Men's Association, known as the First International; it lasted a dozen years only. This international phase is now known as Marxism and is associated with Soviet Russia (p. 647); its aim is to overthrow existing governments by world-wide revolutions.

The main body of socialists in other countries has divorced itself from Marxism, and devotes itself to securing its reforms by peaceful parliamentary procedure. A second division of Socialism was caused by the Russian Revolution of 1917; this made of Communism a separate doctrine, feared and outlawed almost everywhere. The communists aim at upsetting existing governments by revolution with violence. Previously there was little difference in meaning between Communism and Socialism.

The failure of Socialism as a movement, outside of Russia, has been chiefly due to the lack of any central body that could define its teachings and furnish discipline. Its real success has been won as an educational movement. In

this guise it has influenced millions of people who do not belong to the working class, but would gladly support laws tending to a more equal division of the comforts and necessities of life at the public cost. This has led to the formation of many parties calling themselves Social Democrats. Even in Russia, the Mensheviks, who carried through the first revolution in 1917, were of this group; they were willing to co-operate with the bourgeoisie, that is, the small capitalists of the middle class. They were overthrown, it will be recalled, by the Bolsheviks, who are Marxian socialists and communists.

The appeal of Socialism as an educational movement led the Roman Catholics in Austria to call themselves Christian Socialists, although this is said to be merely protective colouration. In Christian countries everywhere it has focused the attention of preachers upon the social teachings of Jesus and the communistic tendencies of the early Church; this has given currency to such phrases as a "Christian Social Order". Labour unions have tended in the same direction: in England Guild Socialism has aimed at "workers' control" of industry; the British Labour Party, since 1900, has been committed to a socialistic programme, while avoiding the name Socialism; it has been advised by members of the Fabian Society, which developed plans for social reforms through the "inevitability of gradualness". Hence some socialists are referred to as "gradualists".

Apart from all organizations, however, Socialism has exerted a strong influence through calling attention to the injustice of the capitalistic system, the disadvantages of the poor in courts of law, and their sufferings in time of war. In general it has worked for peace among nations; it has emphasized the crimes of imperialism; and it has brought to view the common interests of working classes in all countries. It is sometimes said "We are all socialists now", which is true at least to this extent, that mankind has been converted to socialistic principles in various degrees.

The methods adopted by socialistic agitators and the results attained have depended upon the nature of the government prevailing. In countries ruled by despotisms, such as Germany and Austria, various degrees of secrecy were necessary, and in Russia conspiracy was the only feasible method of procedure. In France and Anglo-Saxon countries, that is, the United States, Great Britain and Ireland and the English-speaking colonies, where freedom of speech is permitted and the newspapers are not bridled, consistent and progressive improvements have been made in the political, social and economic condition of the working class without adopting Socialism.

Socialism in France

When the Great Powers in 1814 chose Louis XVIII to be king of France they were aiming to make Europe safe for monarchy. A parliamentary system like that of England was adopted, and things might have flowed smoothly if the successor of Louis had been equally prudent. He was not, and presumed to become an autocrat. In 1830 a local revolution occurred and Louis Philippe was elevated to the throne, which he held "By the Grace of God, and"—a significant addition—"the Will of the Nation." The king himself was hardly a menace, but the people were dissatisfied. Men under thirty years of age possessed no votes, and a high property qualification excluded tens of thousands of others. The country was experiencing the Industrial Revolution and the workers had become a distinct class. The right of every man to have employment and the duty of the State to provide it, that is, Socialism, was a doctrine being discussed in every wine-shop. At the end of the year 1847 Karl Marx issued his *Communist Manifesto,* and in February, 1848, a revolution broke out in Paris, to be followed by others in many countries. Thus Socialism had become a force in World History. It was, and always has been, an international movement.

The Paris revolutionists of 1848 called themselves communists. They brought fear and detestation upon themselves by their crimes. The outcome was the foundation of the Second Empire under Napoleon III. There was another outbreak after Napoleon's abdication following the capture of Paris by the Germans in 1871. The communists seized the city and held it for two months, murdering both priests and public officials. Public buildings were burned. These mad measures sent a panic through Europe, won fresh support for autocratic governments, and tended to discredit all socialistic activities.

People began to fear that human society might fall into chaos. For a time it looked as if monarchy might be restored in France, but the danger passed. Gradually the elements of republican government were introduced. People were given freedom to hold public meetings; freedom of discussion was allowed to the Press; attendance at school became obligatory; the clergy were deprived of their control of education. After 1884 trade unions or "syndicates" were permitted. The truth is that France became a republic somewhat on the American model. In the course of time even socialists were permitted places in the Cabinet, and in 1909 one of them, named Aristide Briand, became Prime Minister. So strongly has republican practice established itself in France that the government has defied both the Church and the army. By the year 1888 the government had so completely recovered the confidence of Europe that Russia accepted a large loan from Paris bankers, and in 1891 an alliance was made between the two countries. In 1896 the Czar Nicholas II visited Paris. This was a novelty, the despotic master of millions recognizing an avowed republic.

England

While the French people during the Revolution were building a new government by wrecking the old one, the English were abandoning the small-shop industries for the

factory system. To the new methods the steel and cotton manufactures were especially adapted, which, in turn, created new cities such as Birmingham, Manchester, Sheffield and Leeds. Thus the north of England began to overshadow the south, which had fattened on the woollen trade during four hundred years. The large sums of money necessary for building and financing the new factories were derived from the fortunes in hard cash that flowed in from the colonial trade, especially from India and the West Indies. As the new industrial districts increased in population the system of representation in parliament became more and more out-of-date. The new industrial cities were without a voice in the government, while deserted villages, the so-called Rotten Boroughs, sent up two members each.

That portion of the English people which neither owned factories nor worked in them was sympathetic towards reform for humanitarian reasons. The factory owners were stubborn and selfish. The titled landlords were determined to resist all efforts to wrench from their hands the right to nominate the members for Rotten Boroughs. The result was a very moderate change, the Reform Bill of 1832, which was forced by the Whigs: fifty-six Rotten Boroughs ceased to send members, and thirty-two lost one of two members. Forty-three new boroughs were created in new centres of population. Male citizens who owned or occupied houses worth a rental of fifty dollars per year were given a vote. The voting, however, was still carried out in the presence of witnesses, which permitted intimidation by agents of landlords and employers. Of 6,000,000 male citizens fully six-sevenths remained without a vote at all. The disappointment of the factory-workers, coal-miners and weavers led to prolonged agitation and rioting, which was enhanced by hard times and unemployment. Hundreds of thousands emigrated to the United States and Canada. Those who remained at home reprinted Magna Carta and the Bill of Rights and formed Chartist Clubs. This name

was derived from a document called the People's Charter, published in 1838; it demanded at one blow a series of reforms that were subsequently gained by degrees, including universal suffrage, vote by ballot, and abolition of property qualification. The end aimed at was "social equality", or in words employed at the time, "that all should have a good house to live in with garden back or front, just as the occupier liked; good clothing to keep him warm and make him look respectable, and plenty of good food and drink to make him look and *feel* happy."

The disorder that resulted from these Chartist meetings was sternly repressed, but order did not return until the atrocities of the Revolution of 1848 in Paris alienated the sympathy of all lovers of peace. In the meantime England had become a free trade country, employment was increasing, and the country began to enjoy the long prosperity of Queen Victoria's middle and later years. During the latter half of the century the English people were destined to reap many benefits of socialistic agitation while bequeathing its dangers to the nations of the continent.

By the time of the American Civil War (1861-1865) the prosperity of the English people had increased to a degree that made reforms more easy. The Liberal statesman Gladstone was not able to carry them through, but the Tories had become sufficiently mellowed to permit the brilliant Jew, Disraeli, afterwards Lord Beaconsfield, to rob their rivals of that honour. In 1867 a million names were added to the voters' list by the admission to the franchise of lodgers paying a rental of fifty dollars per year. Compulsory education came in 1870 and the secret ballot in 1872. In 1874 a law was placed upon the statute books that recognized the equality of the working man with the factory owner to this extent, that "strikes" for higher wages or other benefits became lawful, provided that violence was avoided.

In 1884-1885 came a new Reform Bill, sponsored by

Gladstone, extending the vote to agricultural labourers who paid a rental of fifty dollars per year, which added 2,500,000 to the voters' list. After 1888 the counties were no longer ruled by the squires, and county councils elected by the tax-payers took charge in their stead. In 1894 the towns began to handle their own affairs. In the nineties the Liberal Party talked of "mending or ending the House of Lords". This issue drifted along until 1909, when the veto power of the House of Lords was entirely abolished in financial matters, and in the case of other measures became null and void after two years. Other changes came rapidly in the years preceding the World War, the disestablishment of the Church in Wales and the enactment of laws for insurance against old age, sickness and unemployment. The measure covering the last named became known as the "dole". It was not until January 1, 1918, during the Great War, that the vote was conferred upon all males, and upon women over thirty years of age. The process of reform in England has always advanced by gradual stages.

The United States

It must be remembered in speaking of the nineteenth century that Great Britain and the United States were complementary to each other. For example, the invention of the cotton-gin in 1793 supplemented the invention of spinning and weaving machines in England. The increased supply of cotton stimulated the cotton industries in England, and conversely, the increased demand for cotton caused the rapid development of the cotton plantations in the southern States. With respect to labour, the over-supply in England was relieved by the unrestricted flow of emigration to the United States. In the United States, on the other hand, labour troubles were eased by the abundance of free or cheap land and the constant demand for hired men. The Industrial Revolution was related to the extension of agriculture; in its first stages it consisted in the invention

and improvement of ploughs and reaping machines, which in turn speeded up the settlement of the country from coast to coast. It was chiefly in the second half of the century that the factory system developed on a large scale, and large cities began to receive multitudes of foreign workers. As the expansion of agriculture and manufacturing slowed up with the turn of the century the demand for foreign labour diminished, and in 1917 the numbers admitted annually were suddenly restricted by law.

Just as in England, the past century was a time of great prosperity, but in one essential respect it was different. The frequent scarcity of labour and the immense size of the home market encouraged employers to increase the wages, and in this way the highest wage scales ever known in the world were established. This was especially true in new industries, like the motor-car industry, for example. It is noticeable that the old industries, such as coal-mining, cotton spinning and weaving, and the steel industry, which originated in England, have remained as relatively low wage scale industries. Nevertheless, the average prosperity was so unmistakable that socialist agitators met with very little sympathy, and the people found a vent for their interest by reading of Utopian plans of society, such as Edward Bellamy's *Looking Backward*, which was published in 1888 and became one of the best sellers. The general appetite for social questions was also indicated by the popularity of a more serious book by Henry George called *Progress and Poverty*, published in 1879.

Germany, Austria and Russia

The revolution of 1848 in Prussia was effectively suppressed, with the result that tens of thousands of the more enlightened Germans emigrated to the United States. Their departure eased the political situation for many years thereafter, but in 1878 two attempts were made by socialists to assassinate the Kaiser. Thereupon all socialistic societies,

meetings, and periodicals were forbidden. This was no idle threat. The number of those imprisoned was 1,500, and 900 were exiled; the publications suppressed numbered 1,400. To offset this severity the government proceeded to give with the left hand what it refused with the right. Laws were passed providing for insurance against accident, sickness, incapacity and old age. A ten-hour law for women factory workers was passed in 1891, and children were not to be sent to work until the minimum education was complete. Thus the German working classes were well protected, well educated, and prosperous, but these benefits were conferred to forestall trouble. They were a bounty from an autocratic government, not the fruit of a victory of social democracy.

Germany and Austria were so closely related that what happened in Germany was almost certain to be repeated in Austria. This was true of the revolutionary outbreaks that occurred and were suppressed in 1848. The wily old Austrian emperor, Francis Joseph, made only grudging concessions to the middle classes and to the working man, but his government was an autocracy supported by the army. It will presently be told how his successor, the Emperor Charles, was forced to step down from the throne at the same time as the German Emperor in 1918 after the Great War. In both countries republics were established.

The cause of Socialism in Russia could exist and grow in but one way, underground. This was because the Czar was a more complete autocrat than either the German Kaiser or the Austrian Emperor. While this despotism made secrecy absolutely essential, the nature of the preventive measures pursued by the government made agitation an alluring game. The agents of the secret police were everywhere, and the methods of the pursuers were naturally adopted by the pursued. Conspiracy became a fine art. The centres of activity were in the cities, and especially among the students of the universities. Suspected

persons were seized, thrown into prison, or exiled to Siberia, but persecution only increased the numbers of these enemies of the government. Several attempts were made to take the life of the Czar by throwing bombs at his carriage. In 1905 and 1906 the pressure upon the government became so severe that the Czar was constrained to summon the old national assembly called the Duma. It was never very effective, but its existence served to postpone trouble for a time. The distresses of the Great War brought the long threatening revolution to a head (page 646).

Increase in Trade and Population

An astonishing feature of the nineteenth century was the increase of population in Europe and America, which kept pace with the increase of trade and the improvements in the lot of the ordinary man. The American census of 1800 showed 5,308,483; the census of 1900 showed 75,994,575, and the census of 1910 revealed a further increase of 20,000,000 in only ten years. The knowledge that this increase is explained largely by immigration from Europe renders all the more amazing the parallel increase there from 180,000,000 to 450,000,000 within the century. In both instances there is no doubt that the increase of manufacturing was an efficient cause, enabling multitudes to support themselves as wage earners without land; to the increase of industrial employment must be added the prodigious increase of the food-supply, due to the development of the Americas.

Along with these fundamental causes must be mentioned the universal improvement of living conditions and medical care, which in their turn were the natural results of prosperity, scientific advances and humanitarian movements. Antiseptic surgery saved many lives, as well as the growing use of antitoxins for germ diseases. The multiplication of large cities called for the construction of waterworks, sewers, pavements and hospitals as an insurance for

public health, and these improvements in their turn made it possible for cities to attain a size never before known. The use of chinaware, which first became inexpensive through the introduction of factory methods in England during the eighteenth century, must also have promoted the general health. In the Middle Ages, when wooden bowls and trenchers were used by the poor, it was not uncommon for two-thirds of the infant children to die in their first year. It need hardly be mentioned that the decrease in infant mortality and the increase in the length of life means an enormous addition to the number of people living at a given date.

This increase in population affected all the larger countries of Europe. At the end of the nineteenth century there were 270,000,000 more Europeans than when Napoleon died. They were eating more food, better food and a greater variety than ever before. They were better housed, had better furniture and more conveniences than ever before. They were using articles unknown a couple of centuries before. They had tea and coffee from the opposite side of the world. Frozen meats were being shipped across both oceans. They had fruit from tropical countries, which had been beyond the reach of their grandfathers. They could travel in more comfort than kings and princes of ancient times. The railway had been extended to all settlements of the white man. Transportation and communication had brought all parts of the world together, had rendered their products known and made necessities of what had once been luxuries.

This expansion of trade and population went on without check or hindrance so long as free land was available in new countries such as the Americas, Australia and New Zealand, and so long as employment remained fairly sure. It was not until the turn of the century had arrived that the limits of expansion began to be descried. For half a century the British enjoyed a superiority in trade that none

could dispute. France followed her lead in industrialization, but her products were supplementary to those of England, finer fabrics than the English mills produced, and more artistic objects than were made in Sheffield. Germany was later in the field; even in 1850 there were few factories in that country, but they developed rapidly once a beginning had been made. Intellectual Germans were shut out of political careers, and turned to scientific research to win a superiority as undisputed as that of England in cottons and steel. Compulsory military training made obedient factory workers of German boys, and their products, more cheaply produced, came into competition with articles of English manufacture. In the United States, towards the end of the century, new methods of manufacture were devised to turn out vast quantities of standardized products, such as clocks and shoes. These methods were transferred to other industries. This expansion and intensification of industry created an insistent demand for larger markets, as in Africa, which had offered little attraction to merchants in the pioneer stages of world commerce. The truth is that the Industrial Revolution called into being a new colonial policy, the results of which will be mentioned in Chapters LIII and LIV.

CHAPTER LI

NAPOLEON III AND THE CRIMEAN WAR

KINGS IN WORLD HISTORY.—Ambition of Napoleon III—The Second Empire a Grand Monarchy—The Third Republic.

THE CRIMEAN WAR.—The Fortification of Sebastopol—England Allied with France Against Russia—Russia Humbled and Turkey Saved—Belated Reforms in Russia.

In World History it is rarely necessary to mention monarchs, who, in the main, have not influenced the course of events to a greater degree than private individuals. It is fitting to mention Queen Victoria, who, for sixty-four years, presided over the fortunes of the British people with rare high-mindedness, dignity and wisdom, a reign that for solid achievement has had no equals in the past and may never have an equal in the future. Of the other monarchs of the time it is sufficient to say that the Hapsburgs were still ruling in Vienna, the Romanovs in Russia, and that Kaiser William of Germany was a Hohenzollern of the Hohenzollerns.

There is one monarch, however, who deserves a paragraph or two, not because he was brilliant or powerful, but for the reason that circumstances permitted him to play a high part for a time in the momentous game that was known as the Balance of Power. Louis Napoleon, nephew of Napoleon the Great, had spent his youth in unsuccessful but not fruitless intrigue; he became an adroit politician, waiting for a suitable opportunity to display his talents and to satisfy his ambition, which was immoderate. The opportunity arrived with the establishment of the Second Republic following the Revolution of 1848. In 1851 he was elected President by an enormous majority. In 1852 he revealed his real desires by executing a bloodless *coup d'état,* and misled the people by the magic of a famous name into electing him Emperor, just as they had recently elected him

President. This Second Empire was less offensive to the Grand Monarchs than a republic, but they continued to regard Napoleon with amused suspicion. He failed to secure a royal bride, and contented himself with marrying a Spanish lady of some rank. He played the role of Grand



Photo oy Burton Holmes from Ewing Galloway

PARIS

View of the city and the Seine River from Notre Dame Cathedral.

Monarch himself with tact and moderation. He carried out a new plan for the beautification of Paris, which his famous uncle had made the fashion. Wide streets were opened up for exclusive shops and distinguished public buildings, and Paris became, to an even greater extent than before, the model of mid-European capitals. In foreign affairs he interfered just enough to maintain a certain prestige and to satisfy the pride of the nation without venturing too far.

That this pretty game should have succeeded so long, from 1852 to 1870, is rather amazing, but its continuance was chiefly due to good fortune and to the genuine prosperity of France. The Second Empire crumbled at the first blow of the Prussian sledge-hammer, and France emerged for the third time as a republic, soon to be firmly established at home and acknowledged abroad.

A specimen of Napoleon's policy of advancing boldly and retreating soon and prudently is afforded by his conduct in the Crimean War.

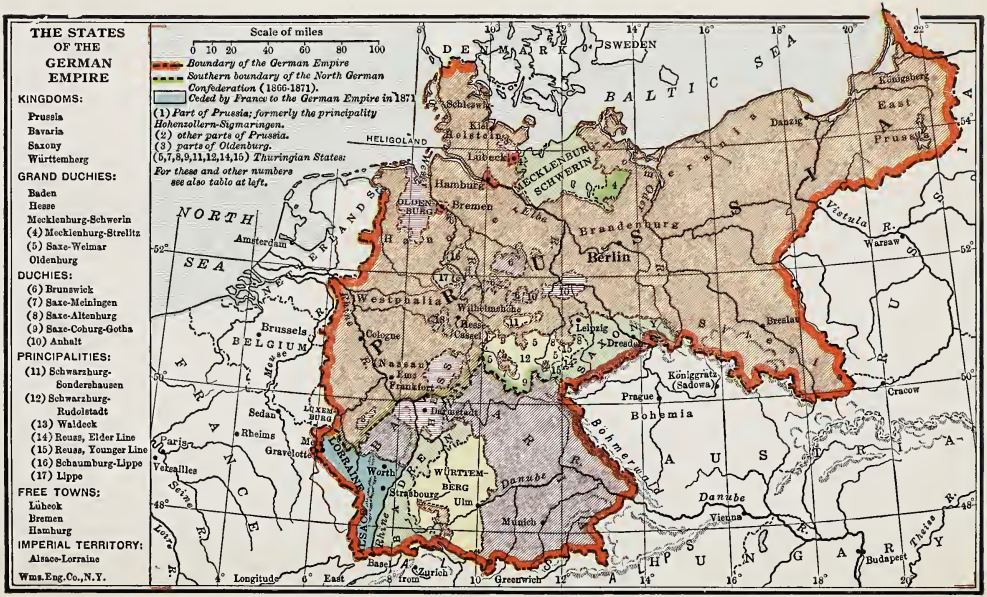
The Crimean War

It has been told how Greece in 1829 became independent of Turkey through the aid and consent of Great Britain, France and Russia. By the year 1854 the first two were at war against the third. Ever since Russia was modernized by Peter the Great in the eighteenth century it had been the ambition of Russia to make itself a power by sea as well as by land. It had long enjoyed access to the Baltic but in the south was confined to the Black Sea, both by international agreement, made in 1841, and still more because the Turks held Constantinople. With a view to breaking through this restriction the government began to construct a great naval base and fortress at Sebastopol, on the Crimean Peninsula. This might have succeeded if the Czar, Nicholas I, a great believer in the divine right of kings, had not snubbed Napoleon III of France, whom he regarded as a usurper. Napoleon III, on his side, was ready to take up the gage because he was a vain, ambitious man, and only too glad to make war upon Russia for the sake of increasing his own prestige in Europe. Thus came about the deplorable Crimean War of 1854-1855.

Russia endeavoured to keep England out of the conflict by offering to divide with her the territories of the Sultan of Turkey, whom it was then fashionable to call the "sick man of Europe". Egypt was offered her as a particularly

tempting bait, but the offer was declined. The main attack of the allies was directed against Sebastopol. This developed into a siege, and the English people were profoundly shocked by the bungling of its staff. Costly military blunders were made, the care of the wounded was criminally inefficient, and the losses by cholera most lamentable. Nevertheless, Sebastopol was taken and Russia humiliated. This was all that Napoleon III desired, and peace was made. It added greatly to his prestige that the Peace Congress met in Paris, 1856. Turkey was saved, the same Turkey that European crusaders had many times endeavoured to destroy. The Black Sea was closed to war-ships. Rumania passed into the same class as Greece as an independent kingdom.

The chief reaction of the Crimean War fell upon Russia. It dispelled the halo of invincibility that floated around the great official system of the Czars. The government had been avoiding contact with western Europe. Travel was discouraged. The circulation of books and periodicals was strictly limited. The universities were starved and censored. Nevertheless, there was a Liberal party working for reform, and the disasters of the war secured them a hearing. In 1861 serfdom was abolished, which affected 47,000,000 souls. They were either made tenants or given land of their own. Some land was given to villages in joint possession and ruled by assemblies of the heads of households. This seemed to be a beginning of local self-government. The universities were given more freedom and, incidentally it may be said, rapidly became centres of the socialistic teaching which became prevalent after the Revolution of 1848 in France.



THE GERMAN EMPIRE, 1871-1918



UNIFICATION OF ITALY

CHAPTER LII

EMERGENCE OF ITALY AND GERMANY AS NATIONAL STATES

ITALY.—Political Divisions of Italy—Ineffectual War of 1848—Reforms of Count Cavour in Sardinia—Campaigns of the Patriot Garibaldi—Capture of Rome in 1870—Kingdom of United Italy—Weakening of the Pope as a Temporal Sovereign—Progress of Italy Under Parliamentary Government—Ambition of Italy to Become a Great Power.

GERMANY.—Steps Towards German Unity—The Prussian Landlords or Junkers—Reforms in Prussia After the Napoleonic Wars—The Prussian Constitution—German Emigration to the United States—Bismarck and his Policies—He Crushes Austria—Franco-Prussian War of 1870—An Unfortunate Example—Formation of the German Empire in 1871.

The year 1871 was remarkable for the emergence of both Germany and Italy as national states. These two important events were extremely late in coming to pass. England, France and Spain had all emerged as distinct national states before the close of the Middle Ages. Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Rumania, Switzerland, Portugal, and other smaller countries had been on the map for longer or shorter periods. For the tardiness of the German and Italian races in arriving at union and unity there were special reasons.

ITALY

It might have been thought that the very shape of the Italian peninsula spelled unity, but disunity, and not unity, marked its history from the early Middle Ages until recent times. From the middle of the eighth century it was effectively cut in two by the States of the Church, which extended from the mouth of the Tiber on the west to the mouths of the Po on the east. After Napoleon's downfall in 1814 the Great Powers apportioned the remaining parts in such a way as to make the possibility of union more remote than ever before. Austria was presented with the domains

of the old Republic of Venice, and Lombardy was thrown in for good measure. The Kingdom of Sardinia was allowed to annex to Savoy and Piedmont the domain of the old Republic of Genoa. Corsica was retained by France. The remaining duchies were assigned to friends of Austria. The Kingdom of Naples, that is, southern Italy and Sicily, became the realm of a branch of the Spanish Bourbons.

In spite of this ingenious and fiendish patchwork of states the dream of unity continued to float through the minds of patriotic Italians, and the leadership naturally came from the west side. The despotism of Austria rendered all open agitation impossible elsewhere, though secret societies flourished in the dark. The series of revolutions that swept over Europe like a forest fire in 1848 seemed to furnish a suitable opportunity for a war of liberation. There was panic among crowned heads and high hopes in the circles of the Liberals, as all friends of democracy were styled in those days. Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, took for his motto "Italy will go it alone," and without assistance from outside proceeded to invade the Austrian provinces. In 1849 the valiant and picturesque revolutionist Garibaldi helped to set up a republic in Rome. Similar insurrections broke out in Sicily and Venice. All of these ventures ended in disaster. The preparations of the insurgents had been far from adequate, and against superior forces and firmly entrenched authority the finest courage and the most fervent patriotism were fruitlessly sacrificed.

Fortunately, at this juncture a clear-headed and determined man came to the fore in Sardinia. This was Count Cavour. He recognized that in Italy the clergy and their friends were what the nobles were to Germany; there could be no republican government so long as they ruled. He therefore broke with the clerical party and allied the Crown with the Liberals. He reformed the army after the Prussian system, which, like the revolutionary movement, was spreading over Europe. To meet increased expenses he

abolished more than half of the six hundred monasteries in the kingdom. He built railways and canals, and put the country into an excellent condition both for business and for war. At the same time he allied himself with Napoleon III, to whose vanity an appeal was always powerful.

With Napoleon's aid a new king of Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel II, abler than his father, made a successful campaign against Austria but was deserted before his work was finished, just as England had been deserted by Napoleon in the Crimean War. Peace was made as soon as the capricious emperor's pride was gratified, in 1860. Austria was allowed to retain Venetia. Positive gains were registered, however, when other parts of Italy voted to join Sardinia. An independent crusade was then headed by Garibaldi and his red-shirted followers. They succeeded in liberating the greater part of Sicily and also southern Italy. This triumphant march of the matchless leader of insurgents induced the king of Sardinia to join him in Naples, 1861. The consequence was that all Italy except the States of the Church and the Austrian province of Venetia became part of his kingdom.

This partial success might never have been rounded off if Prussia had not chosen to fall upon Austria in 1866 and then upon France in 1870. Prussia was by no means unwilling for the Austrian Empire to lose a rich province like Venetia, and the Italians were only too ready to seize it. In 1870 the Prussian attack upon France compelled Napoleon to withdraw his garrison from Rome, which was protecting the Pope. The Italian army was then free to enter the city, which it did on September 21. The Pope withdrew into the Vatican and persisted in regarding himself as a prisoner. The Church was deprived of properties valued at $100,000,000. The new Italian government offered to return the sum of $650,000 per annum for the support of the Vatican, but this was declined.

The story has been told before how the supremacy of

the Roman Catholic Church was established throughout western Europe during the Middle Ages, and how it exercised a civilizing influence among barbarian races. The curve that represents the growth of its power reached its highest point as medieval civilization ripened in the thirteenth century, and inevitably approached its decline as the national states grew stronger and national churches in Protestant countries usurped the possessions and incomes of the Pope. This demonstrates that the Church was not exempt from the laws that govern the growth and decline of monarchies and empires, but the career of the Pope as a ruler and a sovereign is quite another thing from his position as the spiritual head of the Church. His influence in the cause of international justice and fair-dealing need not be destroyed because his temporal possessions have shrunk to the dimensions of the Vatican palace and its gardens.

The new government of Italy was planned upon the model of the English parliamentary system, which was widely studied and copied during the revolutionary period in Europe. It set bravely to work to remedy the evils of centuries of selfish misrule. Banditry was stamped out. Provision was made for a system of public schools. The abolition of local tariff barriers permitted a great revival of internal trade. Railways were constructed. Factories began to spring up in the north in spite of the lack of coal-mines. Fortunately the country possesses rivers suitable for generating electric power, the development of which has kept pace with the progress of modern engineering. Cascades that awakened the admiration of Roman poets have long been furnishing energy to illuminate the city of Rome.

Unfortunately, the rivalries of European nations seemed to render it essential that Italy should possess a large army and navy. This led to the adoption of the Prussian system of compulsory military training, which entails vast expense. The cost of ships was excessively large on account of the lack of coal, but the ambition of the people was such as to

submit to heavy taxation. The pressure of population was relieved by steady emigration to both South and North America, but this came to a virtual stop during the Great War. The socialistic movement found fertile soil in the country on account of the idealistic tendencies of the people. It flourished not only in the industrialized cities of the north but also among poor agricultural labourers in the south, where large estates still survived. It will be told in a later chapter how the socialists were prevented from taking the government in their own hands after the Great War (p. 731).

GERMANY

At the opening of the nineteenth century the storm-centre of European politics was in France. Not only the achievements, but even the dreams, of the Grand Monarchs were being surpassed by that wayward usurper, Napoleon the Great. With the Peace of Paris and the Congress of Vienna the old monarchies were restored to control. However, the Romanovs in Russia, the Hapsburgs in Vienna and the Bourbons elsewhere had already produced their strongest men. Their stocks were all in the decline. The turn of the Hohenzollerns had come last. The storm-centre of Europe at the close of the century was to be in Germany. In 1871 Germany became a united, national state.

This belated union had been approached by gradual steps. In the eighteenth century Prussia had grown stronger and larger at the expense of Austria and Poland. The two hundred or more medieval German principalities of curious shapes and various sizes had been reduced to less than fifty by the Napoleonic wars. The Holy Roman Empire had been dissolved in 1806. Into its place had come a loose confederation reaching from the Baltic to the Adriatic, the members of which were pledged to defend one another and to take common action in foreign affairs. The Emperor of Austria acted as President.

Austria was the richest member of the confederation,

but Prussia was the most vigorous. The latter played the role of Sparta among the German states, and devoted itself to war and agriculture. The Prussia landlord, unlike his brother in Ireland or Spain, lived on his land and domineered over his servants in person. After a good old fashion he sat at table on a raised platform or dais while the churls ate below. His word was law and his manners sharp and autocratic. The eldest son inherited the estate, and the younger sons became officers in the army or civil servants under the government. There were no large cities in the territory and few factories. Trade was chiefly in the hands of the Jews, who did not aspire to take part in politics. The landlords, therefore, had things their own way. They are known as Junkers. The career they made for their country illustrates the power of a poor state to influence world politics, provided it has determined leaders and the people are willing to submit to the execution of a single plan.

Prussia had been forced to make a fresh start during the Napoleonic wars. At the battle of Jena in 1806 the army had lost all the prestige previously gained for it by Frederick the Great. It was necessary for the king to swallow his pride and adopt the new French system of compulsory military training. Thereafter every citizen became a soldier and every soldier was a citizen. It was the intention that every member of the state should be imbued with the military spirit. Serfdom was abolished and also the various tolls and dues formerly paid to the landlords. The professions of law and medicine were for the first time opened to the sons of nobles. It seemed as if a close approach was being made to the legal equality idealized by the French people during the revolution. Nevertheless, these reforms were all made in the interests of Enlightened Despotism. The king surrounded himself with able men drawn from other states. With their help he governed his subjects and did their thinking for them. It chanced to his advantage that they were Protestants and

that the clergymen were dependent upon him. In this respect he was in a better position than the emperor of Austria, whose people were Roman Catholics. The Catholic Church was, of course, less easily handled.

By the middle of the century the Industrial Revolution and the advent of the railway began to affect Europe, especially Prussia. The increase in trade made existing conditions seem ridiculous. In 1815 there were sixty-seven tariff systems in Prussia. By 1850 most of the German states had been persuaded to adopt a common tariff. This movement seemed to be democratic and in the interests of unity. There was a strong party agitating for political reforms. They were greatly encouraged everywhere by the Revolution of 1848 in Paris, and fighting broke out in Germany in various places. Success, however, was only momentary, and the National Assembly, which met in Prussia, was finally dispersed by soldiers. Nevertheless, a constitution was framed, providing for a House of Representatives and a House of Lords alongside the Crown. This constitution proved to be no charter of liberty but rather a licence to the king to govern as he pleased. It survived until the revolution of 1918, following the Great War.

For World History a very important result of the revolutions of 1848 was the large German emigration to the United States, which seems to have come largely from Prussia. To the United States this meant the acquisition of a class of immigrants of high type, already imbued with democratic sentiments. They contributed substantially to the thrift and prosperity of the Middle West, while to Germany the emigration meant a postponement of trouble. The opposition party was deprived of its leading spirits, and the reactionaries at home had things their own way. It was at this time that the famous statesman Bismarck came to the fore. He was a Junker, and frankly despised parliamentary government, which he considered to be "just talk". "Not by speeches or by resolutions of a majority are

the great questions of the age to be decided—that was the mistake of 1848 and 1849—but by blood and iron."

Bismarck stood for a new kind of political action, which was a sort of opportunism, to take measures to secure the best interests of the country under any given circumstances without regard for general principles. He studied his projects well beforehand but acted with promptness, energy and severity when once his mind was made up. It was his determination to make Prussia supreme in Central Europe. The numbers of the standing army were doubled, falling little short of half a million. To this costly standard all continental states felt obliged to adapt themselves. This was in sharp contrast with the practice of Anglo-Saxon countries, Great Britain, the English-speaking colonies, and the United States, whose regular troops continued to be negligible in numbers. Bismarck's policies, of course, did not lack opponents; there was a progressive party demanding the separation of church and state, the budgeting of expenses, and the reform of the House of Lords. These he defied. The Press was muzzled and it became a punishable offence even to present a petition for reform.

Those who wish war and are ready for it easily find excuses for beginning it. It was a small matter for Bismarck to take the two provinces of Schleswig and Holstein from Denmark in 1864. He had scarcely more trouble in crushing Austria in 1866. His plan of campaign was framed to suit his circumstances. His army was unsurpassed, but his lean purse would not stand a long war. He therefore counted upon crushing his enemy at one blow. It was never his plan to permit a Seven Years' War, much less a Thirty Years' War. His campaign against Austria lasted only four weeks. This victory left him free to lay violent hands upon the territory required to join up East Prussia with the province on the Rhine.

The humiliation of Austria was a necessary step towards the humiliation of France, but it was of rather less conse-

quence. France was then under the rule of Napoleon III, a vain man, whom Bismarck thoroughly understood. He teased him into a declaration of war by publishing an insulting news item. Then followed the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, which, from the point of view of World History, is one of the most important ever waged. The suddenness and effectiveness of the blow delivered by the German army against France created such a startling and profound impression that other nations were intimidated, and the German militarists became possessed by an illusion of their own invincibility. War was declared in July. In January Paris was captured. France was compelled to give up Alsace on the Rhine and part of Lorraine, which contains coal and iron mines. She was obliged to pay an indemnity of a billion dollars within three years.

The loss of the two provinces was the deepest hurt to the pride of France, but the indemnity was of far more importance in World History. The intention of the Germans was to "bleed France white", but the thrifty French people were able to pay over the gold long before the time stipulated. This fact was never forgotten and, when the Great War was over in 1918, France was determined to collect the last farthing from Germany. Naturally it was inconceivable that the whole cost of the War should be assessed upon her, but even so, the bill for damages inflicted (Reparations) was set at a figure far beyond her ability to pay. This mistake proved to be a prime cause of the world-wide depression which began in 1929.

The dazzling victory over France in 1871 dissolved the objections of the smaller German states to becoming part of a German Empire, and William I had the bad taste to assume the new title of German Emperor in the palace at Versailles, which was nothing less than a studied insult to a conquered foe. Less than fifty years later his empire had become a semi-socialistic republic and his successor had fled to inglorious exile.

CHAPTER LIII

THE PARTITION OF AFRICA

Partition of the Americas in the Eighteenth Century—New Importance of Asia and Africa.

Natural Divisions of Africa.—Egypt and the Mediterranean Coast Lands—The Sahara Desert, Central and South Africa—Ancient Importance of the East Coast—Earlier Motives of European Powers.

The French in Algiers.—Expulsion of the Dey of Algiers—Plan of Reviving Roman Africa—The Plan of Settlement.

The English in Egypt.—Priority of the French in Egypt—Great Britain Purchases Shares of Suez Canal Company—Importance of Egypt for the British Empire—Importance of British Occupation for Africa—Gradual Growth of British Influence—Anomaly of the British Occupation—Success of the British Occupation—Dissatisfaction of the French and the Italians.

The French in the Sudan.—Annexation of the Sudan.

Great Britain and Egypt in the Sudan.—Reigns of the Mahdi and the Khalifa, 1881-1898—Reconquest of the Sudan, 1896-1898.

The Fashoda Incident.—French Colonial Plans Thwarted—The Anglo-French Entente.

New Motives.—Scientific and Humanitarian—Colonial Ambitions of Italy—Belgium and the Congo District—German Colonies on West and East Coast—Frustration of Portuguese Plans—Germany and France clash over Morocco—Survey of Africa in 1914.

Down to the year 1763 the task of conquering, colonizing and partitioning the two American continents consumed the surplus energy of the western European nations. This stage of World History may be said to have been complete when the independence of the United States of North America was recognized in 1783, but the severance of the Western Hemisphere from the older lands as a distinct field of political action did not take place until the Monroe Doctrine became a fixed principle of world politics after the year 1823 (page 540). This signified that the process of partitioning the lands of weaker racial units had come to an abrupt and final termination in the Americas.

In the interval between the latter dates, 1783 and 1823, the turmoil of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars put a temporary but effective check upon all colonizing

activities. Furthermore, the warring nations instantly became great consumers of food and raw materials, so that the tide of trade flowed towards them, not from them. During the subsequent period of recovery the factory system began to extend itself to the continent, so that the possession of overseas markets under national control came to seem of great consequence again. Since the two Americas had become a closed area, there was no recourse but to turn to Africa, Asia and the islands of the Pacific. To these three remaining areas the policy of Partition, which had been aggravated, and not mitigated, by the Napoleonic Wars, was promptly transferred. The result was that Africa was carved up by the Powers in much the same way that Poland had been divided by Prussia, Austria and Russia.

Natural Divisions of Africa

From the standpoint of World History the continent of Africa must be divided into the following parts: the long and narrow valley of the Nile, which is Egypt; second, the long and narrow strip of fertile coast-line along the Mediterranean; these two parts have shared their history with Europe and the Near East since the remotest times. South of the fertile coast-line the long and broad belt of the Sahara Desert served to shut off the southern part of the continent from the effects of World History down to the nineteenth century. Even the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope made little difference to it. The European slave-traders haunted the coasts with their cargoes of cheap rum, glass beads and red cotton handkerchiefs, but the interior of the continent remained an almost unknown jungle-land. The Dutch farmers in the south did not penetrate deep into the dry lands until driven to retreat by the British in Cape Town.

The east coast was less forbidding to the European on account of the neighbouring mountains, but it offered greater resistance to their settlements. It had played a

conspicuous role in an ancient commerce of which no accurate history was ever written and perhaps never will be. It belonged in a vast trade area that included Egypt, Arabia, Persia, India and the islands farther east. For the sake of this traffic a canal was dug from the Nile River to the Red Sea in the middle period of Egyptian History, between 2500 and 1800 B.C. This eastern sea-trade was already ancient when the profits of it were enriching Solomon and Hiram of Tyre (I Kings ix, 26-28).

The Greek Historian Herodotus (Book IV, 42) relates that Phoenician pilots had circumnavigated Africa from east to west long before his time; this voyage must have antedated the feat of Vasco da Gama by 2,000 years. During the period of Ancient History the vigour and enterprise of the black race is further attested by the fact that they occupied the opposite coast of Arabia as well as Africa. The only remnant of this mysterious prosperity of East Africa is the still independent kingdom of Abyssinia or Ethiopia. In the land of Rhodesia are imposing ruins of buildings of stone masonry of which the history is absolutely unknown, but they must have belonged to a race that shared in the culture of the lands fringing the Indian Ocean.

From these considerations it follows that the logical order in treating of Africa is to begin with the ancient countries of the Mediterranean shore and to follow with an account of the Sudan and the long unexplored jungle-lands of Central Africa and the south. By way of generalization it may be said that the continent was doomed to be more completely partitioned by European nations than any other. Secondary motives actuated the Powers in the first instance; the French first entered Algiers to suppress piracy; the British became interested in Egypt because of the Suez Canal and their desire to control the shorter route to India; it had been the desire to control the longer route by way of the Cape of Good Hope that led them to seize and retain Cape Town after 1805. Only in the last quarter of

the nineteenth century did the ambition to possess colonial sources of raw materials arouse the activity of Belgium, Italy and Germany.

The French in Algiers

While the French were assisting the Greeks to attain a limited independence they were drawn into another Mediterranean war that quite unexpectedly exerted a great



Algerian Government Photo

Packing Dates for Shipment

influence upon world affairs at a later time. The beginning of it arose from a ridiculous incident. A French official was protesting against the raids of the Barbary pirates when the Dey of Algiers hit him with the handle of a fly-swat. This was in 1827. In 1830 a French fleet and army appeared, seized the Dey, and shipped him to Asia Minor along with his harem, his ministers, and his body-guard of 2,500 Janissaries.

At first the only aim of the French was to suppress piracy, but they found themselves engaged in a Holy War, which is bound to occur in any Mohammedan country when Christians first invade it. This was headed by a dashing Moorish prince of the kind that is familiar to us from novels and from the moving pictures, young, handsome, daring, eloquent, and above all, marvellously lucky, especially in escaping. His name was Abd-el-Kadir, Emir of Mascara. It required seventeen years to subdue him. By this time the French had conceived the idea of "reviving Roman Africa", in which they have succeeded. Piracy has long since disappeared; roads have been built, date-palms, olives, vines, and other trees planted. Fields and orchards are supplied with water through irrigation ditches, as in Roman times.

The English in Egypt

For half a century Egypt was a constant source of contention between France and England. France had been establishing herself in Algeria since 1830, and believed that to her it logically belonged to superintend the affairs of Egypt. In 1859 the construction of the Suez Canal was begun under the direction of the eminent French engineer De Lesseps. Within ten years it was finished in spite of the opposition of the British Government, which made a determined effort to influence the Sultan of Turkey to stop the enterprise. At this time Egypt was part of the Turkish Empire and its rulers were subject to the Sultan. These rulers, at various times, had introduced new industries into Egypt, such as the cultivation of cotton and sugar-cane, and French engineers had improved the irrigation works. No increase in revenue, however, could keep up with the expenses of the royal court, and the ruler was frequently bankrupt.

This situation at length gave a turn to events that fixed the spot-light of public attention upon Egypt and held it

there steadily for many years. In 1875 the report was circulated that the ruling prince, Ismail, was willing to sell his 177,000 shares of stock in the Suez Canal Company for cash. The British Prime Minister, Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield, acted with extraordinary promptness. Without waiting to consult his ministers, he borrowed four million pounds sterling and closed the deal. This led in a short time to the British occupation of Egypt, which influenced World History in a number of ways.

In the first place, the benefits of British management were so great and so well known that the glory of the British Empire was raised to its highest pitch; this point may be assumed to have been reached at the time of the Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria in 1897. In the second place, the attitude of all the ruling races of Europe towards the "inferior races", as they were then condescendingly called, was gradually altered. A new kind of imperialism was born. It was a very self-complacent imperialism but it was superior to the old. The custom of making gain out of less privileged races began to give way to the desire and duty of uplifting them. Rudyard Kipling began to sing of the "white man's burden". This phrase is no longer popular, nor is it considered good form any longer to speak of "inferior races", but both were much on men's lips thirty years ago.

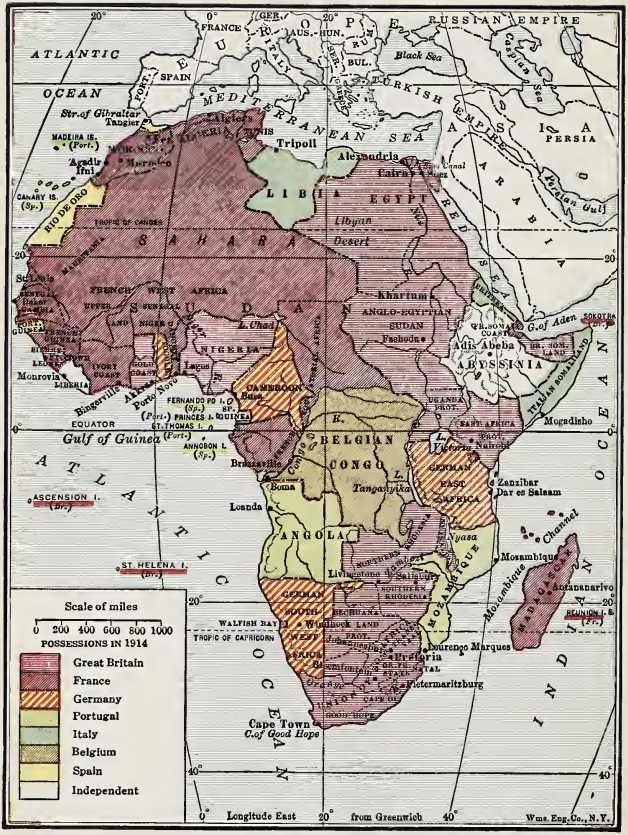
In addition to its effect upon the ideals of the dominant races, the British occupation of Egypt had particular results in the development of Africa. First of all, it determined the spheres of influence of the European nations on that continent. It was natural for the British, being in lower Egypt, to extend their rule up the Nile valley; again, it was logical for the British, being in South Africa, to work northwards through the centre of the continent. Thus was born the plan for a Cape to Cairo railway. To-day the British sphere of influence follows this north and south line. In the second place, the north and south direction

of British enterprise prevented the French from establishing their colonial zone across the continent from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean. Similarly, the Portuguese were hindered from connecting their colonies on the east coast with those on the west. In brief, no colonies of any nation on either coast could be joined up with those on the other.

Of course, none of these results were foreseen when the bankrupt prince, Ismail, disposed of his shares in the Suez Canal Company to the British government. In Africa, as elsewhere, the true course of history has been the evolution of the unforeseen.

British influence in Egypt did not become supreme all at once. For two years, 1876-1878, the revenues and expenditures of the Khedive, as the ruler was called, were superintended by French and British officials jointly. Then Ismail revolted, and was deposed by his sovereign the Sultan of Turkey. His son was appointed in his stead: then for two more years there was joint control by France and England. This was terminated by a dangerous uprising, headed by a forceful native called Ahmed Arabi. The French declined to use their troops to restore peace, and the British forces, under Sir Garnet Wolseley, handled the trouble without help. The victory of Tel-el-Kebir, 1882, was much talked of at the time and for long afterwards.

The British occupation of the country really began at this date. It was a situation almost without parallel. The spotlight of European criticism was concentrated upon every turn of events. The Sultan of Turkey was sovereign of the land, and consequently the British troops were upon foreign soil. The French were feeling extremely resentful. The country was deeply in debt to European bankers. The natives of all classes were in an ugly humour, and the Sudan, higher up the Nile, was the scene of a Holy War, led by a religious fanatic known as the Mahdi, who believed himself to be a kind of Messiah.



AFRICA IN 1914

Out of all these difficulties the British extricated themselves with a wisdom that can hardly be over-praised. The Sultan was satisfied so long as he received his tribute. Foreign debtors remained quiet because they received their interest payments. The natives became reconciled when they found themselves humanely treated; they were happy even in military service when they found themselves well fed and promptly paid. The peasants (fellahin) prospered because the water for their fields was increased in quantity and fairly distributed. The area of cultivation was greatly extended by the construction of the famous Assuan Dam above the first cataract, 600 miles above Cairo. In brief, Egypt became one of the most prosperous countries in the world. Among the eminent Britishers who deserve credit for this achievement the name of Lord Cromer stands especially high.

The French were naturally much irritated by the increase of British influence in Egypt. By the year 1883 they were no longer sharing in the joint control. The fact that they were to blame for their own retirement did not diminish their chagrin. It afforded them some comfort to make themselves supreme in Tunisia on the north coast of Africa, where they secured control in 1881. The British consented to this because their chief concern lay in the safety of the Suez Canal, and they felt that they were getting the better of the bargain. The Italians, however, were angered, because Tunisia lies only one hundred miles across the sea from Sicily, and most of the foreigners in the country were of their race. Armed resistance was out of the question, because Italy became a united kingdom only in 1871 and was not yet a first-class power. The only way they could retaliate was to join with Germany and Austria in the Triple Alliance, 1882. This afforded them no help in securing a slice of Africa, but it was an unfriendly gesture against France. Not until the Great War was this relationship broken (1915).

The French in the Sudan

In the meantime the French, being checked in the Mediterranean, began to work in another quarter where they would be less observed. In the region south of the Sahara Desert they projected a plan of colonization upon so large a scale that it may be fairly compared with the design of connecting the Gulf of St. Lawrence with the Gulf of Mexico in the eighteenth century (page 448). The starting point was the colony of Senegal on the west coast; from there explorations were pursued straight westward to the Niger River, which was reached by 1883. By 1898 Lake Chad had been reached, which lies exactly half-way between the Atlantic Ocean and the Red Sea. By 1901 their eastern frontier touched upon the Egyptian Sudan, which was just coming under the joint control of Great Britain and Egypt.

Great Britain and Egypt in the Sudan

It was in the Sudan that British and French interests clashed a second time. The Egyptian Sudan, of which the chief city is Khartoum, had been lost to Egypt from 1881 to 1898. During this interval it was ruled, first by a self-appointed Mohammedan despot named Mohammed Ahmed (1881-1885), and subsequently by his successor or Khalifa, Abdullah. The former claimed to be the Mahdi or "Expected Guide", a sort of Messiah to whose coming the Mohammedans look forward with pious hopes. He crushed an Egyptian force led by an English officer, and also captured Khartoum in 1885 and killed General Gordon. Within the same year he died.

The Khalifa, or successor, reigned undisturbed until in 1895 a Tory Government came into power in England with the Marquis of Salisbury as Prime Minister. In 1896 an army of English and Egyptian troops was sent under Sir Herbert Kitchener, afterwards Earl Kitchener, to reconquer the Sudan. As the force advanced along the Nile a railway was constructed behind them and every preparation

was correspondingly thorough; the troops had machine-guns. The main forces of the Mahdi were crushingly defeated at Omdurman in 1898. Khartoum was retaken and the whole country passed under the joint rule of Great Britain and Egypt.

The Fashoda Incident

It was just after the battle of Omdurman that word came of the hoisting of the French flag on the White Nile at Fashoda, 600 miles above Khartoum. This was part of a plan to connect up French Somaliland at the entrance to the Red Sea on the east coast with French Equatorial Africa on the west (map page 577). General Kitchener immediately set out with gun-boats and raised the British and Egyptian flags on the opposite bank. He persuaded the French officer to retire through Abyssinia (Ethiopia) to the Red Sea, and to leave the home governments to settle the dispute.

This clash strained the relations between Great Britain and France to the utmost, but was peacefully settled in 1899. Complete accord was restored in 1904 when the two countries came to an "understanding" known by its French name as the Entente. France ceased to condemn the presence of the British in Egypt, and Great Britain assented to the French entering Morocco. The name Fashoda was removed from the maps; the site is now marked Kodok.

New Motives

The events just described belong to the first stages of the European penetration of Africa. France had first gone into Algeria to put down piracy, and England into Egypt to protect her sea route to India. Other self-interests accounted for colonial foundations in Africa by the Dutch and Portuguese. After 1870 new motives began to actuate Europeans. One of these was scientific, which inspired Henry M. Stanley to explore the Congo River and made of David Livingstone as much an explorer as a missionary.

Mention of the latter brings to mind the religious motive, and along with it goes the humanitarian. The slave-trade with America had been suppressed on the west coast, but that with Asia still flourished on the east coast. It kept the black chiefs in continual war and even threatened to depopulate the country, because the aged and infirm, being unfit for slavery, were simply murdered. Towards the end of the nineteenth century the nations of Europe were beginning to feel themselves responsible as the guardians of defenceless races, and the time seemed to have arrived for ending the atrocities of slave-traders, even in the remotest parts. In addition to these desires to explore, to Christianize and to protect, there was also the spur of selfishness; if the continent was to be carved up, why should not every nation demand a share? Every industrial country was seeking new sources of rubber, timber and minerals.

Three European countries now began to join in the partition of Africa, namely, Italy, Belgium and Germany. Italy had the best excuse because of her position in the Mediterranean. The Kingdom of Italy dates only from 1871, and France had already forestalled her in Tunisia by the time she was able to use force. Nevertheless, the position of Italy had nothing to do with the foundation of an Italian colony on the Red Sea near the Abyssinian border in 1885. By 1893 Italy was at war with Abyssinia and suffered a decisive repulse, which is the only instance of a native African colony defending itself successfully against a European power. Thus Italy's dream of founding a vast colonial empire in this region was checked. To compensate herself for this failure, Italy made war on Turkey in 1911 and took Tripoli, which lies between Tunisia and Egypt on the north coast of Africa. This was the only region of North Africa which was not already under European control. Its acquisition was no great prize because the country is for the most part desert, and the Arab tribes in the hinterland are extremely difficult to restrain.

In the case of Belgium it was not the nation that was active in Africa but only King Leopold II. Through his shrewdness he built up in Central Africa what became known as the Congo Free State, but on his death he bequeathed it to the Belgian people. Its chief output was rubber, which acquired sudden importance through the advent of the motor-car.



Photo from Ewing Galloway

NATIVE HUTS IN THE BELGIAN CONGO

This is a model sanitary village built to house the native miners who work in one of the great copper mines at Katanga.

In the case of Germany it was national enterprise. In 1884-1885 the government took possession of Togoland and the Cameroons on the Gulf of Guinea, and of South-West Africa; it also seized a large block of East Africa on a line with the Belgian Congo. In 1890 Germany and England divided with each other the lands of the Sultan of Zanzibar. This arrangement meant to England the temporary surrender of her plan of connecting South Africa with Egypt by a railway. It was also a disappointment to England that the French conquered Madagascar in 1895.

In the meantime Portugal, the pioneer of colonization in Africa, was prevented in 1890 from uniting Angola on the west with Mozambique on the east. This was the work of Cecil Rhodes, who was the great empire-builder of the British in South Africa.



Pouring Out Cloves on Mats to Dry, Zanzibar

In 1756 France and England fought over America. In 1904 and again in 1911 it almost seemed as if France and Germany might fight over Africa. Kaiser William II was, during these years, at the peak of his pride, and Germany at the height of her power. The Emperor visited the Sultan of Morocco in 1904 as a notification to France to respect this friendship. In 1911 the German Government sent the gunboat *Panther* to Agadir to warn France against pursuing military operations in Morocco. To satisfy Germany, which cared nothing about the Sultan, France surrendered 250,000 square miles of territory in East Africa. Upon

these terms objections to the French police forces in Morocco were withdrawn. This illustrates the continued effort to maintain a balance of power in Africa, just as in Europe, a policy which could not last forever and came to a crash in the Great War in 1914.

The process of partition was quite complete by the time of the outbreak of the Great War in 1914. The only independent countries left were the Kingdom of Abyssinia in the east and the Negro Republic of Liberia on the west. Great Britain controlled Egypt, which was still paying tribute to Turkey; Great Britain and Egypt had joint control of the Egyptian Sudan. Italy had Tripoli, France had Tunisia and Algiers and controlled Morocco. France also held the huge area of the Sahara and the Sudan in addition to the Island of Madagascar. The Union of South Africa constituted a solid British block in South Africa. Various colonies on the coasts belonged to Spain, Great Britain, Germany, Portugal and Italy, as may be traced on the map. The only interest of the United States was in the Negro Republic of Liberia, which was founded by emancipated slaves from America. This interest took the form of a voluntary guardianship, which is still exercised.

CHAPTER LIV

EUROPEAN ACTIVITIES IN ASIA

Pre-eminence of Asiatic Races in the Middle Ages—Two Centuries of Colonization in America—The European Nations Close in Upon China—First Motives of Europeans in Asia.

Expansion of Russia in Asia.—Beginnings of Siberia—First Treaty Between China and a European Power—Development of Siberia—Russian Conquests in Central Asia.

The British in India.—Extension of British Rule—Improvements in Administration—Native Soldiers in British Armies—The Indian Mutiny—Industrial Development.

British Policy in China.—Peculiarity of Chinese Trade—The Opium War, 1839-1842—Chinese Arrogance—British Superintendent of Trade—The Fighting—The Treaty of Nanking, 1843—Significance of the Opium War—The War of 1860—Four Treaties—Decline of the Manchu Dynasty—British Inspector-General of Customs appointed.

French Colonies in Asia.—The French Avenge Murdered Missionaries—They acquire Cochin China—Treaty of Tientsin, 1884—War with China, 1885—"The General Government of Indo-China"—Partition of the Pacific Islands.

Japan Adopts Western Ways.—The United States Knocks at Japan's Doors—First Treaties with Western Powers—Revolution, 1867—War with China over Korea, 1894-1895—Significance in World History—The Japanese Constitution.

The Russo-Japanese War.—The Great Powers Revise the Peace Treaty—Exasperation of China—The Boxer Rebellion—The United States Returns Part of the Indemnity—Japan Chastises Russia—A Monroe Doctrine for Asia—Reforms and Revolutions in China—The Republic of China—Dr. Sun Yat-Sen.

The Middle Ages witnessed the maximum display of ferocity, talent and enterprise by the races of Central Asia. China, already old, first expanded and then retreated within her ancient boundaries. The western nations were in their childhood and adolescence. Starting from Central Asia, first the Huns, then the Turks, and lastly the Mongols built up their raiding empires southward and westward. The Huns raided as far as Italy and France, and founded a temporary kingdom on the Danube. The Turks founded strong dynasties in several capitals, and their aggressions reached to Vienna. The Mongols raided as far as Germany



EXTENSION OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA

and held European Russia as a province for two centuries. They founded dynasties in India that lasted till 1857. Throughout the same Middle Ages the commerce of the eastern seas was in the hands of another Asiatic race, the Arabs. All of these, Arabs, Mongols, Turks, and even Huns, brought something of the civilization of China to the West, stirrups and saddles, weapons, gunpowder, the compass, paper, the art of printing, and silk. The East was giving more to the West than the West was giving to the East.

In the sixteenth century the western nations of Europe came of age, but for three centuries their colonizing activities were confined for the most part to the Atlantic and the two Americas. In the nineteenth century, having been shut out of the Western Hemisphere (page 540), they at last began to develop the colonies already established in Africa, Asia, and the Pacific. In Africa there was little ancient civilization to present obstacles to Europeans, and the only difficulties were presented by the jungles, by tropical diseases, and by the rivalries that were transplanted from a contentious Europe. The turn of Asia to be assailed by European civilization came last of all. A storm-centre developed in the China Sea.

The general tendency of European activity in Asia, viewed from the standpoint of World History, was to close in upon the Chinese Empire from all sides. Russia, balked by France and England in Europe, turned her energies towards the east, and enveloped China along the whole northern and western frontiers. Her activities in Persia were limited by the British in India, who also kept a watchful eye on Tibet, and so touched China by land. British commerce from India made a sharp impact upon China by sea. British enterprise eastward of India was checked by the establishment of French Indo-China, which grew at the expense of China by land. By sea the whole chorus of commercial nations, including the United States, was lined up along China's water-front. All the European nations

were hoping to be present at the division of the spoils when Partition took place.

This encircling movement, it must be said by way of caution, had its beginnings in enterprises quite free from such malignant motives. The Russians entered Siberia in the first instance to collect furs. The English sailed to India in the first instance to trade in such things as black pepper. The first interference of the French in Indo-China was to avenge the death of missionaries. The first European traders who visited China and Japan expected only to come away with cargoes of ginger and sugar. It was really not until after the Crimean War in Europe that the rivalries of European nations were definitely transplanted to Asia. The various isolated movements that finally converged upon China will now be briefly traced.

Expansion of Russia in Asia

The first extension of Russia into Asia came about quite casually. In 1581 an outlaw named Yermak fled across the Ural Mountains in quest of furs along the river Ob. He was the leader of an armed force, and succeeded in capturing a Mongol capital named Sibir, from which the whole country received the name of Siberia. The fur-trade must have proved profitable, because other adventurers went farther and farther. They reached the Yenisei in 1620, the Lena in 1630 and the Pacific in 1636. There they found themselves in the territory of the Manchus, who were just then overthrowing the Ming Dynasty in China and much too busy to bother themselves with a handful of Russians. In the year 1689, when William of Orange was becoming king of England, China made its first treaty with a European country. The Manchus, now securely seated upon the throne in Peking, made their appearance on the Amur River with 15,000 cavalry, 10,000 infantry, and 3,000 camels to dictate terms to the envoys of Peter the Great. The Russians were obliged to retire beyond a mountain range to the north.

This treaty is remarkable for several reasons; first, it is said to have been the longest-lived treaty on record, having remained in force until 1858; secondly, it was negotiated between China and Russia on terms of equality; the Chinese did not demand the right to try Russian offenders in their own courts, and neither party demanded special privileges in the territory of the other. The two nations continued to be friendly. There was a Chinese colony in Moscow and a Russian colony in Peking. Between these two cities a brisk caravan trade flowed both ways, just as in the Middle Ages. The Chinese manufactured a special brick-tea for the Mongol and Russian trade, and they also exported silk. In return they bought broadcloth, furs and lambskins. After 1727 the caravans no longer made the whole trip both ways but exchanged goods at the border. In 1733 a Chinese embassy visited Russia, the first to any European nation.

The lure of the fur-trade and the ambitions of the Czars carried Russian enterprise across the Pacific to Alaska, where they arrived as early as 1741 under the leadership of Vitus Behring. In the meantime Siberia was gradually augmenting its Russian population. Many peasants arrived as fugitives from the tyranny of landlords. Even a decree of exile was a relief to a peasant, however horrifying to cultured people. In Siberia the poor man enjoyed greater liberty than at home. Some are said to have committed crimes deliberately in order to reach Siberia. Exiles were given free land, exemption from taxes for three years, and immunity from military service for twenty years. It was after Russia's plans in the Black Sea were blocked by England and France in the Crimean War (1854-1855) that an aggressive policy in Asia was adopted. By 1858 military pressure forced China, by no means so strong then as in 1689, to make a concession of all territory north of the Amur River. By 1860 the Russian front had reached Korea. The port of Vladivostok was then constructed, opposite

Japan. At the same time an arrangement was made that virtually consisted in free-trade between Russia and China. The Trans-Siberian Railroad was begun in 1891 and completed in 1905. In 1896 Russia obtained permission from China to construct the Chinese Eastern Railway across Manchuria. These lines connected Moscow both with Vladivostok and with Port Arthur at the tip of the Liaotung Peninsula. Russia's progress brought her into war with Japan, as will be told presently.

In the meantime Russian generals were busy also in the deserts and mountains of Central Asia, once the heart of the empire of the famous Genghis Khan. Between 1860 and 1900 this whole region between the Ural Mountains on the west and China on the east, extending southward to Persia and Afghanistan, was brought under the rule of the Czar by tedious and costly campaigns, punctuated by many humiliating disasters in the cold and bleakness of the wind-swept deserts. This colossal programme of conquest on Russia's part was largely due to the fact that her ambition to drive the Turk out of Europe and to dominate the Balkan Peninsula was balked by France and England. Against England in particular was directed her advance into Persia. The British, animated by an equal rivalry, undertook to bring all India under their rule, which was finally extended right up to the Khyber Pass, by which the caravans go to and fro between Afghanistan and the Punjab.

The British in India

The policy of the British in India was largely determined by the policy of Russia in Europe and in Asia. The old East India Company was interested only in trade, and spent no more money in war than was necessary to protect its profits. In 1815 it possessed only Bombay and a small strip near Calicut on the west coast; Ceylon had been added in 1795; on the east coast it owned or protected a continuous strip; on the Ganges it had Bengal and Bihar. By degrees

the home government began to take more interest. The first campaign was conducted against the fierce Maratha Empire of the western Deccan, a Hindu power, 1817-1818. This brought all of India proper under British rule or influence except the Punjab, which lies between Afghanistan and Tibet. The conquest of Burma in 1824-1826 meant an addition of territory on the east reaching all the way to Siam.



INDIA

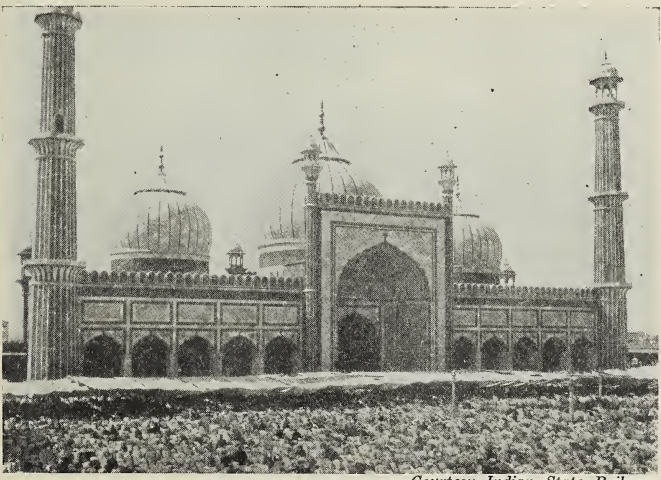
Incidentally, it was also early in the nineteenth century that the humanitarian movement began to find its expression in British India. In 1802 it was forbidden to drown babies in the Ganges or throw them to crocodiles. In 1829 the burning of widows became unlawful. In 1832 the slave-trade was checked and in 1842 abolished. In 1833 the Liberal Government in England so amended the charter of the East India Company that India virtually became a crown colony. In 1837 the use of English or native dialects took the place of the Persian language in the law courts.

The constant advance of Russia towards the northern frontier made military defences essential. Since the country was already densely inhabited and the climate is unhealthy for English people, any thought of colonization was absurd. Under these circumstances the natural course of action was to enroll native soldiers under English officers. The proportion of native troops, or Sepoys, to English in 1857 was eight to one. On the frontier the old Roman policy of erecting buffer states was adopted. This was not easily carried out. An army of 6,000, which was sent to Kabul in Afghanistan in 1842, was annihilated. The next year a larger expedition was sent and a forced friendship established with the Emir, an arrangement that works better in Central Asia than elsewhere. By 1849 the valiant Sikhs had been conquered, and by 1856 the Kingdom of Oudh on the upper Ganges was annexed. By these measures the native princes became surrounded by a ring of territory directly under British rule.

In 1857 the introduction of cartridges greased with lard or beef fat, which the soldiers were required to bite off, caused the Indian Mutiny. The lard offended the Mohammedans, the beef the Hindus, because pigs are an abomination to the former and cows are sacred to the latter. The murder of British officers, the siege and relief of Cawnpore and Lucknow, and the quick conclusion of the rebellion in 1859 are well known. In the meantime the East India Company came to an end, and the king of England began to send Viceroys to rule the country in his name. Rebels were pardoned and natives became eligible to employment in government posts without regard to religious beliefs. In 1876 the title of Empress of India was assumed by Queen Victoria.

The new era that began for India brought many changes. The population increased enormously, being less checked by the murder of infants, war and famine. The construction of dams and irrigation works greatly increased the area of

agriculture. Native industries, such as spinning thread and weaving muslin cloth, have since dwindled because of the importation of cheap cotton cloths from England; on the other hand, the construction of railways has created an outlet for products like rice and wheat. Schools and colleges have not proven an unmixed blessing, because



Courtesy Indian State Railways

THE LARGEST MOSQUE IN THE WORLD, DELHI

educated natives are rendered unfit for manual labour and often find no other occupation. It is among the educated classes that the chief opposition to British rule has arisen. The very fact that this rule offers justice to the lowest castes is an aggravation to the others. In the good old days the poor were consistently robbed by "the bribe-devouring princes".

BRITISH POLICY IN CHINA

It was through India that England's first official contacts with the Chinese government were brought about, and these

were very unfortunate for the course of history in the East. China had been a self-sufficient country for centuries, and it was always a vexing problem for foreign merchants to find merchandise that the Chinese would buy. Fine furs were among the few articles they desired. This peculiarity of the Canton trade compelled American shippers to ransack the Pacific Coast of North America for the



Courtesy College of Agriculture, Burma

PADDY CROP IN LINES, MANDALAY

fur of the sea-otter, which was also the staple of the Russian traders in Alaska. In lieu of furs the Americans carried sandalwood from the Pacific islands. In lieu of either they parted with barrels of Mexican silver dollars in order to return with chests of tea. The East Indian Company increased its profits by introducing the deadly opium into China for smoking purposes. It was a product of India and brought high prices. Chinese customs officials were bribed to let it pass after its importation was forbidden. The Chinese government determined to stop the traffic by seizing and confiscating the opium.

This led to the regrettable Opium War of 1839-1842, but many previous misunderstandings had aggravated the situation. Chief of these was the inconceivable haughtiness of the Manchu emperors, who shared the old Chinese notion



Photo by De Cou from Ewing Galloway

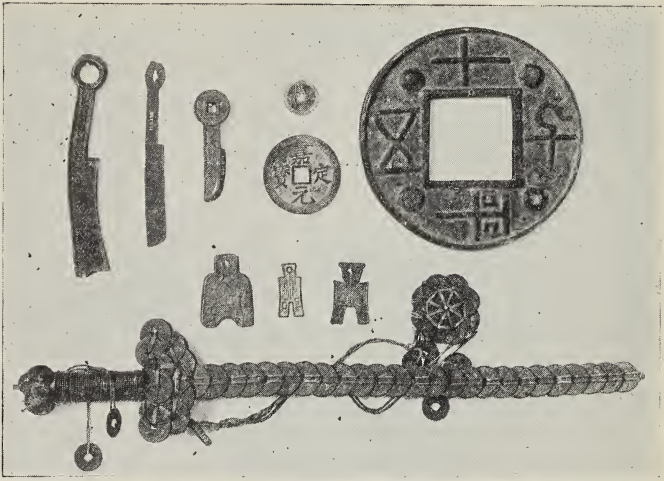
BOOKS IN STONE

The slabs of stone are not tombstones, but books. The greatest classics of Chinese literature were inscribed on these stone tablets, so that they would never be destroyed or forgotten. The picture shows only a few of the tablets in the Hall of the Classics at Peiping (Peking).

that their civilization was the oldest and the finest in the world. It happened also that merchants ranked lowest in the four Chinese classes, namely, scholars (including officials, all chosen and appointed as the result of civil service examinations), farmers, artisans, and merchants. The government consequently left all dealings with foreign

traders to a group of thirteen firms at Canton known as the Co-hong. The Viceroys repulsed all direct approaches.

In 1816 it seemed that an exception might be made in the case of Lord Amherst, who arrived as British ambassador to adjust certain matters arising out of the War of 1812-1814, when British and American crews had clashed



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

CHINESE CASH, KNIFE, SWORD, HOE AND BELL MONEY

All these forms of currency have degenerated from real articles used in barter. The cash itself is the hole in the handle of the knife.

at Canton. Lord Amherst was carried by night in a sedan chair over a hot and dusty road a distance of twenty-two miles to the Summer Palace beyond Peking and required to present himself immediately. It was then five o'clock in the morning. He claimed to be ill. The court physician was sent to examine him and declared that he was shamming. Thereupon the imperial orders were an instant and unceremonious dismissal. Nothing was done at the time to seek redress for this insult.

In 1834 the British Government abolished the monopoly of the East India Company in the China trade, and appointed a Superintendent of Trade for the ports of Canton and Macao, who asked for recognition. The Chinese Viceroy of the district expressed his opinion in a proclamation containing the following sentiment: "The object of the said barbarian headman in coming to Canton is commercial business. The Celestial Empire appoints officials, civilian to rule the people, military to intimidate the wicked, but the petty affairs of commerce are to be directed by the merchants themselves. The officials are not concerned with such matters." The Arab and Indian merchants who had frequented Canton for centuries had been accustomed to elect a spokesman for their respective races, who was called the "headman". The Chinese deliberately closed their minds to any other conception of a foreign representative. They considered all foreign countries as tributary states, and could not logically receive their representatives upon terms of equality.

These were the chief complaints, arrogance on the part of the Chinese, the smuggling of opium on the part of the British. The murder of a Chinese by a British seaman was the incident that brought matters to a head. The British were forced to withdraw to Macao. Twenty-two war junks rashly attacked two British men-of-war. Four were sunk and the rest retired. There were no submarine cables in those days, and it was fifteen months before a despatch to London brought sixteen men-of-war, four armed steamers and twenty-eight transports. The Chinese had only a few out-of-date cannon and matchlock muskets, and were for the most part armed with bows and arrows. The British began with a blockade, but no moderate measures had any effect upon the ignorance and pride of the Chinese Government. Only their utter inability to prevent the British from capturing what cities they chose brought them to terms.

By the Treaty of Nanking in 1843 four ports besides Canton were opened to British trade and residence, of which Shanghai has become the chief. British consuls were to be recognized in these ports, with the privilege of dealing directly with officials of the government. The monopoly of the Co-hong was abolished. The island of Hongkong was definitely ceded to the British. British subjects who became law-breakers were to be tried by courts in charge of the British consuls. It was extremely unfortunate that the British also demanded six million dollars to reimburse merchants for opium surrendered as the price of safety and afterwards destroyed. They were quite justified in demanding restitution for property demanded under such terms, but it was very regrettable that it was opium. To the Chinese this has always remained the Opium War. The opium question was not settled by the treaty, and the British government took the stand that it was none of its business to prevent its subjects from engaging in smuggling in a foreign country.

The Opium War possesses a manifold significance for World History. It signalizes the ruthlessness of western nations in the pursuit of trade no less than the inconceivable arrogance of the Chinese. It signalizes the pressure that was closing in from all sides upon the Chinese Empire during the nineteenth century and down to the Russo-Japanese War. Lastly, it began that long irritation of Chinese pride which, more than any other single force, built up the nation's resistance to foreign aggression. This was closely connected with the rights of "extra-territoriality" claimed by foreign residents and with foreign control of the collection of customs duties in Chinese ports (p. 598).

It might have been thought that the Opium War, however discreditable to the British, would have broken down the Manchu feeling of superiority towards the foreigner. Such was far from being the case. The treatment of

foreigners continued to be irritating to a degree that can be attained only in China. In 1854 the time had arrived for revising the treaties of 1843 according to agreement; this privilege was refused. Several exasperating incidents occurred about the same time. The crew of an American pilot boat was rescued from unjust arrest only by a vigorous threat. A small ship flying the British flag was



WULIANG-KUAN (A LAOTZU TEMPLE) AT CHIENSHAN

seized upon the pretence that it was a pirate craft. A French missionary was seized, tortured and executed. The Emperor refused to receive foreign representatives at Peking, which the treaties required. As a reprisal, Canton was captured by the French and English, and the fleets proceeded to ports near the capital. They were not then in sufficient strength to enforce their demands, and a long interval elapsed before reinforcements arrived from Europe. It was midsummer of 1860 before the troops were adequate for making a landing. The emperor fled, Peking

was captured, and the Summer Palace, where Lord Amherst had been insulted, was looted and burned.

After this chastisement four treaties negotiated at Tientsin in 1858 were ratified; the parties to these were Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States respectively, although the latter two were not engaged in the hostilities. Through the insistence of Lord Elgin the envoys of all four nations received permission to reside in Peking. It was the British also who demanded the opening of the Yangtze River to foreign ships. The opening of a large number of seaports was conceded less reluctantly. Opium was removed from the list of contraband articles and subjected to a fixed duty. The American treaty contained a clause guaranteeing the freedom of missionaries to pursue their labours and securing protection for native converts.

By these forced concessions the humiliation of the Manchu government seemed to be completed. It had been compelled to make the concessions it had most stubbornly refused, the admission of foreign ambassadors to Peking and the recognition of the opium traffic. The result was that the Manchus began to lose prestige, because it is a peculiarity of the Chinese mind that, no matter what evil befalls, flood, famine, pestilence, or invasion, it is taken to signify the displeasure or anger of Heaven towards the rulers.

The pressure upon China was by this time severe enough, but the screws were to be given another turn before the foreign nations were satisfied. During a rebellion in 1853 the custom-house at Shanghai had been looted by rebels. Foreign volunteers drove them out, and declared the neutrality of the parcel of land which had been conceded to the nations for business and residence. This was a defiance of Chinese sovereignty, which the government was not strong enough to resist. It therefore grudgingly admitted this right of "extra-territoriality". Closely con-

nected with this was the vexatious problem of collecting the customs duties, because the Chinese officials were notoriously dishonest. Various remedies were tried and abandoned, until at length the plan was adopted of placing a single Inspector-General over all the custom-houses. A Britisher was selected for the post because the volume of British trade was the largest, and he was given a sufficient staff of his own race to guarantee honest accounting and uniform treatment to all foreign traders. This system was first established at Shanghai in 1854 and became the rule of all open ports, in accordance with the treaties of Tientsin of 1858. Its functions were enlarged to include a postal service, public health service, and the work of surveying the coasts and maintaining lighthouses.

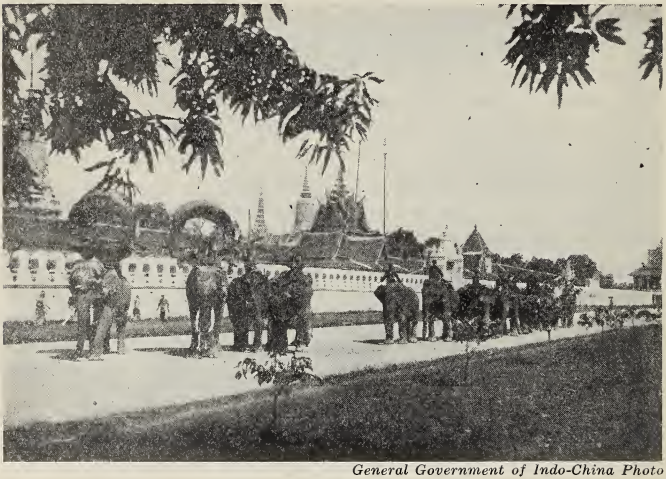
This forced arrangement proved to be very profitable to all parties concerned, but the injury to Chinese pride and self-respect was aggravated, and not diminished, as the years went by. China was doomed to submit to other military chastisements, once at the hands of her neighbours the Japanese. At last the resentment against Foreign Devils broke bounds, and China declared war against the world in the Boxer Rebellion of 1900 (pages 606-607).

French Colonies in Asia

Just as the French Empire in Africa was the outcome of a war against the Barbary Pirates in the Mediterranean, so the French dominion in Asia grew out of an expedition sent to avenge the execution of Roman Catholic missionaries in Annam. The so-called emperor was obliged to surrender Cochin China to France in 1862. This colony was not acquired for the sake of trade. The campaign was ordered by Napoleon III to increase his own prestige, but very important consequences followed. The king of Cambodia on the west placed his kingdom under the protection of his new neighbour through fear of the king of Siam on his other border. This had the effect of making

Siam a buffer state between the French and the English, who were by this time in Burma.

At first the French hoped to navigate the Mekong River northward from Cochin China into the richer country called Tongking, but it proved unfit for steamboats. Afterwards they found that the only practicable route was by way of the



General Government of Indo-China Photo

ELEPHANTS IN FRONT OF THE ROYAL PALACE, CAMBODIA

Song-ka or Red River. For many years, however, France was too busy with troubles at home to pay attention to Asia; even the murder of army officers in 1873 was unavenged. It was different after Napoleon III was dead and the Third Republic was firmly established. The massacre of a French force in 1883 by Chinese irregulars known as Black Flags was the signal for prompt and efficient action. Fresh troops quickly brought both Annam and China to terms. Both Tongking and Annam became French protectorates by the Treaty of Tientsin in 1884.

This ought to have been the end, but the Chinese paid no heed to the treaty. France, having committed herself to the enterprise, felt bound to see it through. In a smart campaign of only seven months' duration China was treated to another whipping along the sea-front by a European power, and even Peking was cut off from its indispensable supply of rice, which was regularly shipped by sea from the southern provinces. In 1885 a second Treaty of Tientsin was signed and subsequently respected. Not long afterwards the national pride of France was reinforced by the desire to trade, and the four regions of Tongking, Annam, Cambodia and Cochin China were amalgamated under the title "The General Government of Indo-China". The next step was to round off these territories to a natural boundary on the west. In 1893 the king of Siam was obliged to surrender the strip of land east of the Mekong River. In 1896 the English in Upper Burma recognized French rights to the opposite bank. In 1907 Siam gave up a solid block of land from her own side of the Mekong.

This whole programme of annexation is a typical example of European colonial policy in the latter part of the nineteenth century, when the Partition of China was a constant topic of the newspapers. The independence of Siam was respected because of the necessity of having a buffer state between French Indo-China and British Burma. It plays the same role as Afghanistan between British India and Russia in Asia.

It was also in the second half of the century that the scattered islands of the Pacific Ocean became of interest to Europe. France had taken Tahiti under her wing in 1843, and New Caledonia in 1853 for a convict colony. The Fiji Islands became British in 1875. New Guinea was divided among Great Britain, Germany and Holland. The Samoan Islands fell to Germany and the United States in 1899 and the New Hebrides to the French and British. None of these

islands seemed covetable in the old days when continental areas were open to settlement, first in America and later in Asia and Africa, but in the latter part of the century the rivalries of European nations spread to all parts of the Pacific.

It need hardly be said that the gains of France in Indo-China were at the expense of the Chinese Empire, and were a counterpart of the pressure exerted by Russia in Manchuria and Korea. In the meantime a new power appeared in the Pacific which neither Russia nor any other European nation had expected to reckon with at the time when a common impulse of acquisition first drew them towards Asia. This new power was Japan.

Japan Adopts Western Ways

It is a paradox of history that the Japanese, of all the races of Asia, repulsed most firmly in the beginning the approaches of Europeans, and then became the first to adopt western ways in their entirety. So long as the Shoguns were in power, all foreign trade was forbidden and only one harbour, Nagasaki, was open to strangers. Even there only the Chinese and the Dutch were permitted to enter. The country was self-contained and self-satisfied and might have remained so if the western powers had not forced the door in China and shattered the self-complacency of the Orientals. It was the United States that first demanded entrance to Japan. They desired humane treatment for crews of whaling vessels who found themselves in distress in the northern seas. The desire for intercourse became greater when San Francisco became an American port in 1848 after the Mexican War.

In 1853 Commodore Perry appeared before what is now Tokio and succeeded in having a letter handed to the Mikado, which was contrary to Japanese law. Nothing came of it. The next year he returned with eight war-ships and 4,000 soldiers. The sight of foreign steamers and guns



Courtesy of A. R. Stone

JAPANESE FARM HOUSE

induced the Japanese to yield. They agreed to open two harbours, to admit American goods with a moderate tariff, and to receive a consul to protect American citizens. This treaty furnished a model for others subsequently concluded

with Russia, Great Britain, Holland and France. It was not long before these countries were represented by ministers. By this time the Shogunate with its 268 feudal lords and 400,000 armed men had lost some of its warlike spirit. The opposition party grew too strong for them and appealed to the Mikado, who had long been kept in the shadow by the feudal lords. In 1867 a peaceful revolution took place and the new Mikado, Mutsuhito, was restored to power. He ruled until 1912.

The revolution, though long postponed, was rapid and thorough when once it was undertaken. The feudal system was abolished and the clans dissolved. The famous annual processions of the Daimios came to an end, and the Samurai, the warrior caste, was no more. In 1872 a compulsory education act came into force, and in 1873 universal military service was adopted. Toleration had already been granted to Christianity. Buddhism and Shintoism lost their preferred place as part of the state religion. The western calendar, including the Sabbath as a day of rest, was officially recognized. Teachers were imported to instruct students in the English language, and Japanese students were furnished money with which to study in America or Europe.

It was not long before the Japanese, always aggressive, found an opportunity to employ their new army and navy against China. Rebellion broke out in Korea, and the Korean emperor, owning the Chinese emperor as his suzerain, appealed for help. Japan stepped in without an invitation. The uprising was quelled without the help of either, but the war was on. China possessed more men and more ships, but the Japanese army had been recently trained in Prussian methods and the navy organized by British experts. The war was brief and decisive by land and sea, and only a prompt request for peace on China's part forestalled the fall of Peking itself. Korea was

recognized as an independent state under Japanese, instead of Chinese, protection. Japan received Formosa and the neighbouring Pescadores Islands. Southern Manchuria was also conceded, but how this gain was cancelled will be told presently (page 606).

This victory of Japan is important in World History because it served for a warning and a check to the ambitions of the European powers in eastern Asia. It also dispelled to no small degree the conviction of the white races that they were superior to all others. If Japan in so short a time had been able to learn European methods of war, what might China not accomplish with her 400 millions? This reflection was no slight jar to western self-complacency. It became manifest that in the affairs of the Pacific, Japan must be reckoned with.

In the transformation of Japan's life and government it must be noted that the rulers selected what they judged to be best in each western country. They seemed to be adopting the British parliamentary system. Nevertheless, it is noticeable that pure parliamentary government did not appeal to them. A Constitution was adopted in 1889 and the Mikado took his oath to maintain it. Members of the House of Representatives were to be elected by all male citizens paying a land tax of seven dollars and a half. Members of the House of Peers were to be appointed by the Mikado for life. It is especially significant, however, that the Cabinet can rule without a majority in the House. This system is less American or English than Prussian, and it must not be overlooked that the Prussian system was adopted in the army. The truth is that no obscure likeness is manifest between the Japanese landlords and the Prussian landlords. The feudal military system is well remembered, because men are still living who once wore suits of armour. Its spirit still survives and most of the leading men of Japan are sons or grandsons of the old war-lords.

The Russo-Japanese War

The sudden demonstration of military and naval strength by Japan in 1894-1895 was watched with eagle eyes by all the Great Powers, and the treaty made by her with China was subjected to drastic revision. Russia, in particular, was chagrined because southern Manchuria went to Japan. This led to an understanding with France and Germany, and the three made joint protests. As a result, Russia received the privilege of extending a branch of the Trans-Siberian Railroad across southern Manchuria; she also secured a lease of Port Arthur at the tip of the Liaotung Peninsula. Great Britain, then strongly antagonistic to Russia, received a counterbalancing concession of Weihaiwei on the opposite Shantung Peninsula, "for so long a period as Port Arthur should remain in the occupation of Russia." This exemplifies the working of the Balance of Power in countries outside of Europe. Germany, which had little excuse to make demonstrations in the Pacific but was very self-assertive at the time, received Kiaochow, close to the British concession. France also made demands which were gratified, but Italy, though eager to be recognized among the Great Powers, was disappointed. This gathering of the eagles after the first Japanese victory marked the high point of European aspirations in the Far East. It was a turning point, both for them and for China.

The hostile manoeuvring of the world's battleships at China's front door was not without its reaction upon a people already deeply exasperated. The government was neither vigorous enough nor enlightened enough to organize an armed resistance, but it had a resource that was readily available, secret societies. These needed little encouragement to make war upon the Foreign Devils, and their members became known to the world as "Boxers", a rough English translation of a name meaning "Righteous Harmony Fists". Scores of missionaries, both Protestant and Roman

Catholic, and thousands of Chinese Christians were murdered in 1900. The German amabssador lost his life, and all the foreign legations in Peking were attacked and besieged by mobs. It was not a difficult matter for a joint expedition of the foreign powers, including the United States, to rescue their subjects in the capital. China agreed to pay a large sum in cash by way of indemnity, and to make further concessions to the foreign powers.

In 1908 the United States Government generously voted to return a large part of the indemnity, upon condition that it should be used to pay the expenses of Chinese students while preparing for study in America and attending universities there. A preparatory school was opened in Peking, and scores of students gladly availed themselves of its privileges.

The Boxer Rebellion marked the high point of European interference in China. It was still fresh in the minds of the nations when events took a sharp turn in another direction. In 1901 the Trans-Siberian Railway was nearing completion with one terminus at Vladivostok north of Japan and the second at Port Arthur among the foreign concessions. Russia was not content with these commercial outlets but began to crowd the Japanese out of Korea. In 1902 Japan became an ally of Great Britain, and in 1904 she felt prepared to make war on Russia. The fighting lasted for eighteen months, and resulted in the destruction of the Russian fleets and the defeat of the Russian armies. In 1905 an offer of President Roosevelt to act as mediator was accepted, and the peacemakers, for the first time in history, met in the United States at Portsmouth. The Russians gave up Port Arthur to the Japanese and recognized her rights in Korea. Manchuria was returned to China, and was opened to the trade of all nations.

This Russo-Japanese War advanced the situation in the Far East to a new stage. The cloud that made its appearance on the horizon when China was repulsed from Korea

in 1894-1895 had increased to more noticeable dimensions. A strong European power had been decisively defeated by an oriental nation, which had begun to adopt western ways only a generation earlier. The Great Powers were warned not only by what had taken place, but also in words that the integrity of China must be respected. If the Americas had their Monroe Doctrine, why should not Asia have one also? In 1905 Japan began to intimidate the emperor of Korea into placing his realm completely under Japanese protection; in 1910, after a Japanese prince had been assassinated by a Korean, the country was annexed without more ado. Japan is aggressive, but chooses well the moment of striking, and discreetly waits until it is time for another blow.

A sharp reversal of attitude took place in China after the war. The same government which had stirred up the Boxers now began to foster European ways. Inhuman punishments were abolished, and the practice of foot-binding among women was forbidden. The ancient civil service examinations, based on the Confucian Classics, were done away with, and foreign teachers were imported. Schools were established. Chinese students were sent abroad and there was talk of announcing a Constitution for China. The path to reform was opened still wider by the death in 1908 of the Dowager Empress and her son on almost the same day. In 1912 the Manchu Dynasty stepped down, and China became a republic with Yuan-shi-kai as president. The latter behaved like a Greek tyrant, because he excluded all his opponents from the National Assembly that he summoned. If he had carried out the plan as announced, a government on the American model with a federal house and local Provincial Assemblies might have come into existence. Nothing of the kind happened, and the country continued in a state of revolution for a long time, with rival generals and rival armies marching and countermarching, living off the country, bribing and being bribed.

To the world at large the hero of the revolution was


RUSSIA
SIBERIA
TURKISH EMPIRE
PERSIA
ARABIA
BRITISH INDIA
CHINESE TURKESTAN
MONGOLIA
DESERT OF GOBI
CHINESE REPUBLIC
TIBET
KOREA (CHOSEN)
EMPIRE OF JAPAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
INDO-CHINA
SIAM
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
FRENCH
Moscow
Kazan
Tobolsk
Ekaterinburg
Omsk
Tomsk
Krasnoyarsk
Irkutsk
Lake Baikal
Semipalatinsk
Urga
Urumtsi
Harbin
Vladivostok
Hakodate
Yokohama
Osaka
Seoul
Mukden
Nagasaki
Shanghai
Nanking
Hankow
Sianfu
Yellow Sea
East China Sea
Constantinople
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Lake Balkash
Tashkend
Samarkand
Bokhara
Khiva
Astrakhan
Orenburg
Baku
Tiflis
Batum
Tabriz
Teheran
Bagdad
Basra
Jerusalem
Mecca
Medina
Riad
Muscat
Aden
Kabul
Herat
Kandahar
Peshawar
Lahore
Delhi
Calcutta
Bombay
Madras
Rangoon
Bangkok
Saigon
Singapore
Hongkong
Canton
Macao
Foochow
Amoy
Swatow
Formosa (Taiwan)
Manila
Luzon
Mindanao
Sulu Is.
Celebes Sea
Gulf of Siam
Andaman Is.
Nicobar Is.
Ceylon
Colombo
Malay Pen.
Str. Sett.
Kuenlun
Himalaya Mts.
Lassa
Yangtse R.
Yellow R.
Hwang Ho R.
Tarim R.
Irtish R.
Obi R.
Lena R.
Amur R.
Sakhalin
Kuril Is.
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Greenwich
East from
Longitude
Scale of miles
0 200 400 600 800 1000
British Possessions
Russian Possessions
French Possessions
Railways

Asia in 1914

Dr. Sun Yat-Sen. The son of a farmer, he was converted to Christianity, and studied medicine at Hongkong. After narrowly escaping execution for conspiracy against the Manchu government in 1895 he went abroad and spent much time in London, where he had powerful friends. Discovering in himself an unusual talent for agitation he collected large sums of money from his fellow-countrymen in America and elsewhere, and used these funds to prepare his people for revolution. He sent revolutionary reading matter to the students in Chinese cities, and gained a great following among them. He was also popular with the working classes, because he promised them higher wages and other social improvements. He approved of socialistic measures, but combined them with parliamentary government and nationalism. He was in London when the Manchu Government stepped down and hurried to Peking to become Provisional President of the Republic of China. His forte, however, was education for revolution, not administration. He was quickly driven into a policy of opposition by men more martially minded. The rest of his life did not add to his fame. His monument is the Kuo-min-tang or Republican Party, which he organized. It must be added that the aims of the Nationalist Government which now rules China after a fashion are practically what he advocated.

CHAPTER LV

ANGLO-SAXON COUNTRIES

Utterance of John Bright on Free Land—Similarity between British Countries and the United States.

The United States.—The Ohio or North-West Ordinance—An Extensible Pattern of Government—The United States and European States Contrasted—Rapid Development of the Cotton States—One-Family Farms, District Schools and Neighbourhood Churches—Homestead Act of 1862—European Views of the Civil War—Election of Abraham Lincoln—Lincoln's Greatness—Consequences of the Civil War—Huge Volume of Immigration to the United States—Attitude of Great Britain Towards the United States—The Birth of the Dominion of Canada—The Hudson's Bay Company sells out—Other Remnants of Landlordism in Canada—The Altered Attitude of Great Britain since 1865—The New British Empire.

The Dominion of Canada.—The Character of the Canadian Loyalists—A Reactionary Colonial Government—Armed Rebellion and an Act of Union—Growth of Two-Party Parliamentary Government—The Province of Manitoba—The Province of British Columbia—The Provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan—Similarity of the United States and Canada.

Australia and New Zealand.—Neglect of Eastern Lands Until the Nineteenth Century—Beginnings of Australia; the Gold Rush of 1851—Union of Separate Colonies in 1900—Features Common to the United States, Canada and New Zealand.

The Union of South Africa.—Cecil Rhodes, Empire-Builder—Friction between the British and the Boers—The Boer War, 1899-1900—First Participation of British Dominions in an Empire War—Gift of Self-Government, 1910.

If the bond of union and friendship between England and America shall remain unbroken, we shall not have to thank the wealthy and the cultivated, but those laborious millions whom statesmen and histories too frequently take little account of. They know a little of the United States, which Gentlemen opposite and some on this side of the House do not appear to know. They know that every man of them would be better off on the American continent, if he chose to go there, and would be welcome to every right and privilege that the people there are in possession of. They know further that every man may have from the United States Government a free gift of 160 acres of the most fertile land in the world. (A laugh.) I do not understand that laugh, but the gift, under the Homestead Act of America, of 160 acres of land is a great deal for a man who has no land. I can tell you that the Homestead Act and the liberality of the American Government have had a great effect upon the population of the North of England, and I can tell you further—that the labouring population of this country—the artisans and the mechanics—will

never join heartily in any policy which is intended to estrange the people of the United States from the people of the United Kingdom.[1]

The Anglo-Saxon countries comprise Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the self-governing Dominions, and the United States. For a number of reasons it is not only convenient but also necessary to treat of these in the same chapter. The shrewd German statesman Bismarck is reported to have once said that the most important fact in world politics is the possession of a common language by the British and American peoples. They have much more in common, however, than the English language. In contrast to the nations of continental Europe, they have all been unalterably opposed to compulsory military training, and they have all reacted differently from European nations to the world movement called Socialism. For more than a century all Anglo-Saxon races have been at peace with one another, and within their several limits a consistent improvement in the general well-being has taken place without revolution. In North America, Americans and Canadians live in amity side by side, and settle their mutual grievances without thought of armed hostility. The truth is that Canada is the linch-pin of the Anglo-Saxon world. She is equally protected by the Monroe Doctrine of the Americas and by her membership in the British Commonwealth of Nations. Lastly, the form of the British Empire as it exists to-day is the outcome of events that took place within the United States.

The United States

After the American Revolution the new States that were created out of the old colonies surrendered to Congress their several claims to the unexploited lands beyond the Alleghany Mountains. By these concessions the new federal government became the proprietor of a vast estate, and it was

[1] Extract from Address delivered by John Bright in the British House of Commons, March 13, 1855.

necessary to make a quick decision about the treatment of the settlers already trying their fortunes there. The answer took the form of a measure known as the Ohio or North-West Ordinance. It provided that, as soon as the population of the Ohio Territory should have reached the number of 60,000, the people might call a convention, draft a Constitution, and apply for admission to the Union as a new State. This is one of the most important enactments, not only in the history of the United States, but also in the development of the British Empire, and consequently in World History also.

The new, unoccupied lands stood to the young Republic in the same relationship that the Atlantic coastlands had once stood to the sovereign of Great Britain, but Congress decided that they should never be sacrificed for the enrichment of privileged individuals or powerful companies. In effect it said to the new settlers, "We have won our liberty and you shall continue to share it; we have set up for you examples of republican government; go into the new territory and copy them; the land is an extension of the United States; new States like the original thirteen shall be established one after another until all the territory we now possess, or shall hereafter acquire, shall be embraced in similar self-governing States."

The chief task of the American people in the nineteenth century was to complete the checker-board pattern of self-governing States which we see on the map to-day. It is the largest area of perpetual free-trade in the world. Its significance is apparent when we look at the map of Europe to-day, where no boundary line is either straight or imaginary. In the United States a train-load of passengers or merchandise speeds its way across inter-state boundaries without let or hindrance from ocean to ocean. In Europe a so-called express train from Paris or Berlin to Constantinople may be delayed four times in the space of two or three hundred miles for the examination of baggage by

various customs officials. As for through-freight, such a classification does not exist. Every little sovereign state aims to be self-contained, or, if incapable of that, to rob the importer of all possible profit by restrictive tariffs. In Canada this American pattern of self-governing units within a federal union, all trading freely with one another, has been reproduced, as is evident to all.

Nevertheless, the process of covering half a continent with self-governing States did not proceed without friction. In 1793, only five years after the North-West Ordinance came into effect, an ingenious Yankee named Eli Whitney invented the cotton-gin, a machine for separating cotton fibre from the seed. This gave an incredible fillip to the cotton industry, because even a small cotton-gin, turned by hand, released 300 Negroes for labour in the fields. Between 1793 and 1807 the export of cotton to English mills leapt from 200,000 to 63,000,000 pounds. What was more important, the cotton plantations spread with incredible rapidity to the Mississippi valley and beyond, even into the Mexican province of Texas; the cotton planters also put pressure upon the government to crowd Spain out of Florida, and hastened the attainment of natural boundaries along the Gulf of Mexico. A strong and self-assertive belt of cotton-states was thus established from the Carolinas to Texas.

This new South, which was inevitably committed to the system of negro slavery and large estates, placed itself in unalterable opposition to the extension of the one-family farm system which had grown up in Pennsylvania and New England. Its strength was not developed soon enough, however, to prevent the adoption of a plan of surveying the new lands of the North in square sections of 640 acres each, with smaller divisions into quarter-sections or even eighths. The latter, comprising 80 acres, were offered at a price so low as to be within the reach of the poorest. In the zeal for popular education, which then possessed all the enthusi-

asm of an innovation, certain sections of land were set apart for the support of public schools. In the same era a wave of evangelism, chiefly Methodist, was sweeping the New World. Thus came into existence that threefold unit, the one-family farm, the district school and the neighbourhood church, which was the fortress of American democracy throughout the nineteenth century. The congressmen from the South, however, effectually prevented the offer of absolutely free land.

It was not until 1862, the second year of the Civil War, that the absence of the southern members from Congress made it possible to pass the famous Homestead Act, which made free land available, not only to citizens of the United States, but also to any foreigner who might declare his desire to become a citizen. An eminent British economist, Sir George Paish, has said that this act, along with a similar measure of the Parliament of Canada, was a prime cause of the Russian Revolution of 1917. This means that the triumph of the one-family farm system in America spelled the doom of the landlords of Europe. In this respect the United States and Canada have influenced the course of World History through the circumstance that they possessed millions of acres of good land to give away.

The South was, of course, the last stronghold of negro-slavery among European races, and the Civil War had a humanitarian aspect. In England this sentiment was very pronounced among the working classes, who were employed in the very mills that used American cotton, but the nobility sided with the landlords and loaned money to the new Confederate States. On the continent of Europe the war was viewed chiefly as a strife of systems, landlordism against free land and one-family farms. In America, although the sympathy of multitudes had long been aroused in favour of the oppressed Negro, the chief question was the right of States to secede from a Union into which they had voluntarily entered.

In the autumn of 1860 the election as President of that lonely giant of the prairies, Abraham Lincoln, an avowed champion of the Union, was the signal for hostilities. These began soon after he took office on March 4, 1861. The South was fortunate in the selection of General Robert E. Lee to command its armies. He is judged by many to have possessed, next to Napoleon, the finest military mind of the nineteenth century, and he was still in command when the war came to an end. Lincoln, on the contrary, was compelled to make trial of one general after another until at last the continuous successes of General U. S. Grant in the Mississippi River sector made his appointment inevitable. Then for the first time the anaconda policy, as it was called, of strangling the South by an encircling movement, brought a tardy victory, not by superior courage, but by sheer force of numbers.

The murder of Lincoln by an insane actor in 1865, while attending the theatre, set the seal of martyrdom upon his career. In the esteem of thoughtful people everywhere his name has steadily risen since that time. Many surpassed him in all the graces of the orator, but no man of the nineteenth century uttered so many memorable words. It seems as if no other man discerned so clearly the proper course of action in a perilous time, and none possessed the faith and courage to hold to this course so unswervingly, in spite of the vilest slander and abuse. To his clear thinking, wisdom and steadfastness the United States owe their unity today. Had the South won the War, America might have become an armed camp like Europe, divided into hostile parts and enslaved to the machinery of war. His place in World History, little as he may have surmised it, is no less preeminent than in the history of the Union which it was his one heart's desire to save.

In more ways than one the Civil War was a turning point in the history of the United States. It preserved the Union, but it also released a great wave of public and pri-

vate enterprise. The Industrial Revolution began to approach its completion in America. The first stage of it, the improvement of farm machinery, had already passed, and the result was the creation of a huge market for manufactured articles in the vast areas rapidly brought under cultivation. Waterways were yielding place to railroads, and new cities were growing large and populous with the increase of manufacturing. Farmers' daughters began to throng the factories and to take the places of male teachers in the schools; farmers' sons began to enter the learned professions and business. To supply the resultant need of domestic and farm labour multitudes of foreigners began to arrive from Europe. The Civil War, however costly, was the greatest advertisement the country had ever experienced. The eyes of the world became focused upon it. Immigration at once began to approach the figures attained when the Revolutions of 1848 in Europe had forced a multitude of liberty-loving families to seek a home in the Far West. Previously the newcomers had been chiefly from the British Isles and Germany. In the latter part of the century all countries from Scandinavia to Italy and Greece began to contribute a generous toll.

This peaceful and voluntary migration from Europe to the United States is highly significant for two reasons: in the first place—and only the point of view of World History would bring this within our purview—it surpassed in magnitude of volume the armed migrations of the races that poured over the barriers of the Roman Empire at the dawn of the Middle Ages; in the second place, it cancelled to a certain extent the effect of the Monroe Doctrine. The governments of Europe had been sharply and decisively warned to refrain from undertaking new colonial enterprises in the Americas, but this did not prevent their surplus populations from finding a home there. Thus, throughout the nineteenth century, and down to 1917, the United States, Canada, and other American States like Brazil and Argentina, were com-

plementary to Europe. European countries supplied the labour essential to the development of the new continents, and the new continents furnished an egress for surplus populations. There is little doubt that the termination of this peaceful emigration was one of the causes of the world-wide depression of 1929. The results of such economic changes over vast areas are slow in revealing their effects.

The influence of the United States upon the rest of the Anglo-Saxon world, always active, manifested itself at the close of the Civil War in a way that was, so far as possible, concealed at the time. The then Liberal Government in London was in sympathy with the cotton planters, and permitted two privateers to be fitted out in British ports to prey upon ships of the Northern States. Gladstone, a member of the Government, referred to Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate States, as having "made a nation". Naturally the British felt rather contrite when the South was defeated. The United States had a million veteran soldiers, abundance of able generals, and seemed to be in a bellicose mood. France was at once requested to withdraw her troops from Mexico, and negotiations were opened for the purchase of Alaska. What would happen if a popular clamour should arise in favour of seizing Canada? Would Congress yield to it? In 1866 the situation was suddenly rendered more critical when the United States government terminated a Reciprocity Treaty, which had provided for free-trade with Canada since 1854. In the same year a small panic was aroused when bands of discharged Irish soldiers invaded Upper Canada from the American side, the so-called Fenian Raids. From a military point of view they were paltry affairs, but they often find mention in World History.

Under the circumstances it seemed best to the British Government that the provinces of British North America should be united in a form of government somewhat resembling that of the United States, and that the mother-country

should withdraw so far as possible from American affairs. No time was lost, and leaders of public opinion in Canada, such as John A. Macdonald of Kingston and George Brown of Toronto, were urged to lead a movement looking to Confederation. The Colonial Office found the money necessary to pay the expenses of this sudden campaign. The upshot of it was that the British North America Act was passed in 1867, whereby the Dominion of Canada came into existence. At first it consisted of only four provinces, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec and Ontario. The capital was located at Ottawa with a view to subsequent development westward.

When Great Britain bestowed upon the new Dominion of Canada a degree of self-government hitherto unknown, there still remained in the West a colossal example of landlordism of the early colonial period. This was the Hudson's Bay Company, a creation of Charles II in 1670, when kings had continents to divide among their favourites. This old fur-trading company, it was obvious, would have to step aside, if the Canadian Confederation was to be permitted to expand as the United States had expanded. Not only were its vast domains closed to settlers; they also separated the colony of British Columbia from the eastern provinces. It was natural, therefore, that no time should be lost in removing this obstacle. In 1869 the Directors were induced to surrender their titles to the British Government for the sum of $1,500,000, and the British Government in turn transferred the lands to the Dominion of Canada. Canada, of course, furnished the price of purchase.

In one other part of the Dominion landlordism had been established. This was Prince Edward Island. In 1873 the landlords were bought out and the island entered the new Dominion as a province. In the Province of Quebec, in spite of the conservatism of the French, the manorial estates had been abolished in 1854. Thus the way became open throughout all Canada for the small one-family farm which has been

typical of American country life, in Canada and the United States alike. None is more attached to it than the French habitant, whose ancestors once paid dues and tolls to the lords of the manors.

The attitude of Great Britain towards the United States, as determined by the experience of the Civil War, has remained uniformly deferential ever since. A specimen of its working is furnished by the Washington Treaty of 1871. In the first place, it was a compliment on the part of the British Government at that time to send its envoys to Washington. In the second place, the envoys stoutly refused to press the claims of Canada for damages inflicted by the Fenians during the raids of 1866. On the other hand, the United States received compensation for damages inflicted upon American shipping by the privateer *Alabama*, which had been fitted out in a British port during the Civil War. In all negotiations since that time the British government has been equally inclined to make generous concessions to the United States.

At the time of which we have been speaking Great Britain had no well defined policy towards her own English-speaking colonies. In 1853 the Anglo-Jewish statesman Disraeli had written: "Those wretched colonies will all be independent in a few years; and are a millstone round our necks." In the course of time, however, the steady growth of the self-governing Dominion of Canada proved such a wholesome and enlightening example that an entirely new relationship between the colonies and the mother-country came into being. Along with it came a new conception of Empire, which in the course of time bore fruit in the British Commonwealth of Nations. The keystone of this new British Empire—it deserves to be cherished in memory—is the self-governing Dominion of Canada, which had its origin in fear, haste and necessity after the American Civil War. It required many years for this novel idea to ripen, during which the Dominion of Canada was on trial.

The Dominion of Canada

Canada is the oldest of the British Dominions beyond the seas. In order to understand its peculiar character it is necessary to go back to the years following the American Revolution. What we now call Ontario was being settled for the first time. It consisted of a long and narrow strip of forest between Detroit and the historic city of Montreal, lying north of Lake Erie, Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River. In this forest-pocket, remote from the sea and difficult of access, a few thousands of people were permitted to develop the characteristic Canadian type. They were not fresh arrivals from the old land; they were Loyalist refugees from the United States, where many of the notions of their European forebears had already been remoulded; the truth is, that, if they were not republicans, they were nevertheless already profoundly attached to the right of self-government. In the new home, to their amazement and disgust, they found themselves with less liberty and a smaller share in the government than in the American colonies in which they had been reared. Several of their governors were dignified officers trained in the Napoleonic Wars, who had never known colonials until they crossed the sea to govern them.

It was obvious that the British government had thought out no new colonial policy for this new type of colonist. In 1791 a Constitutional Act was passed, so named to match the American Constitution just recently adopted, but it proved to be no charter of liberty. It provided for an Executive Council to assist the Governor, and a Legislative Assembly with no power except to complain. It was manifest that, so far from having learned a lesson from the American Revolution the government had actually been confirmed in its prejudices. The provision of the Act that particularly galled the Loyalists was a clause that set aside one seventh of all public lands for the support of clergymen of the Church of England, the so-called Clergy Reserves.

It meant nothing less than the intention of transferring to the new settlement the pattern of life that had existed in Tudor England. For this the colonists were not prepared; they were, for the most part, not Anglicans, and Methodism was sweeping in from the United States. Next to the Clergy Reserves, the worse vexation of the people was the lack of control over the public purse and the appointments of public officials, judges, sheriffs and such-like.

The details of the struggles that followed belong to the history of Canada, not here. Suffice it to say that in 1837 an armed rebellion broke out, ill-planned, ill-executed, and easily suppressed. In Lower Canada, where the inhabitants were French, a similar struggle had gone on with equal friction, and the result was the same, armed rebellion in 1837. Under these circumstances it seemed wise to the British Government to do what it ought to have done in 1791, that is, to diagnose the trouble before it prescribed the treatment. The result was the appointment of Lord Durham to study conditions on the ground and to make a report. He proved to be a very impartial and discerning young man, and recommended that the two Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada should be united. This was done by the Act of Union, which took effect in 1841.

In the light of later events this union seems to have been very fortunate, because the people of both provinces had twenty-seven years of extremely active political life together, during which they learned the art of parliamentary government and, what is equally important, obliterated their factions and settled down to the good old British system of a two-party government. So it turned out that in 1867, when an emergency forced the formation of the Dominion of Canada, the people were able to take over the tasks of federal government with a minimum of bungling. In this connection it should be added that the French of Quebec, while keeping to their own ways in religion, proved themselves very apt pupils of the British in parliamentary

practice. They have given to the Dominion one of its two most brilliant premiers, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, and at no time has the House of Commons in Ottawa been lacking in eloquent and capable ministers of French birth and education.

While the people of Ontario and Quebec were laboriously modifying British institutions to suit their particular needs,



Courtesy Canadian National Railways

HALIFAX HARBOUR FROM CITADEL HILL

a parallel struggle for what was called Responsible Government was taking place in Nova Scotia. The high plane on which the controversies with the British home government were there conducted made of the province a veritable laboratory of politics for the rest of British North America. The public records of those years exhibit the finest political reasoning in the annals of the Dominion of Canada. A tradition was set for capable and dignified political leadership that survives in both Nova Scotia and New Brunswick to the present time.

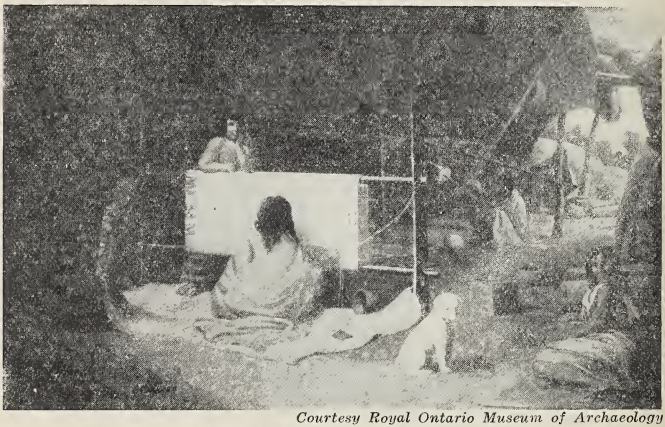
In the British North America Act of 1867 a clause was

inserted corresponding to the Ohio or North-West Ordinance of 1787 (page 612). It provided that new provinces might be admitted to the Dominion as prudence required. There seemed to be special need of this step in the case of Manitoba, which was formed out of the settlements made on the Red River by Lord Selkirk in the domain of the Hudson's Bay Company. These settlers were treated like step-children by the Company and forced to find a market for their grain at St. Paul in the American State of Minnesota. It was an American who first gave them steamboat service on the Red River. Consequently, Manitoba was promptly admitted as a province in 1870, and such haste was displayed in surveying the new lands into square sections after the American fashion that the half-breeds started a rebellion, and the first governer was repulsed from the frontier. Nevertheless, a Provincial Government was quickly organized on the Ontario pattern and a firm foundation was laid for the development of the Prairies to the west.

The need of prompt action on the Pacific Coast was even more pressing. Alaska had been purchased from Russia by the United States in the very birth-year of the Dominion, 1867. Thus the British Colonies of Vancouver Island and British Columbia had American territory on both sides. Down to the year 1846 it had long been a debated question whether the Oregon Territory should be British or American. Now it was a question what would become of this remaining British territory on the Coast. The urgency of the situation accounts for the generous terms given to the new Province of British Columbia when it was admitted in 1871. It was given control of all the enormous forests of valuable woods such as cedar and Douglas Fir. It was also left free to dispose of unoccupied lands and other natural resources. A pledge was made that within ten years a railway should be built across the Rockies to connect the Province with the older Provinces of Ontario and Quebec.

This promise proved difficult of fulfilment, but at last in 1886 the first transcontinental train steamed into Port Moody, which was then the terminus. In the language of the day it was declared, "The Provinces have been bound together with hoops of steel."

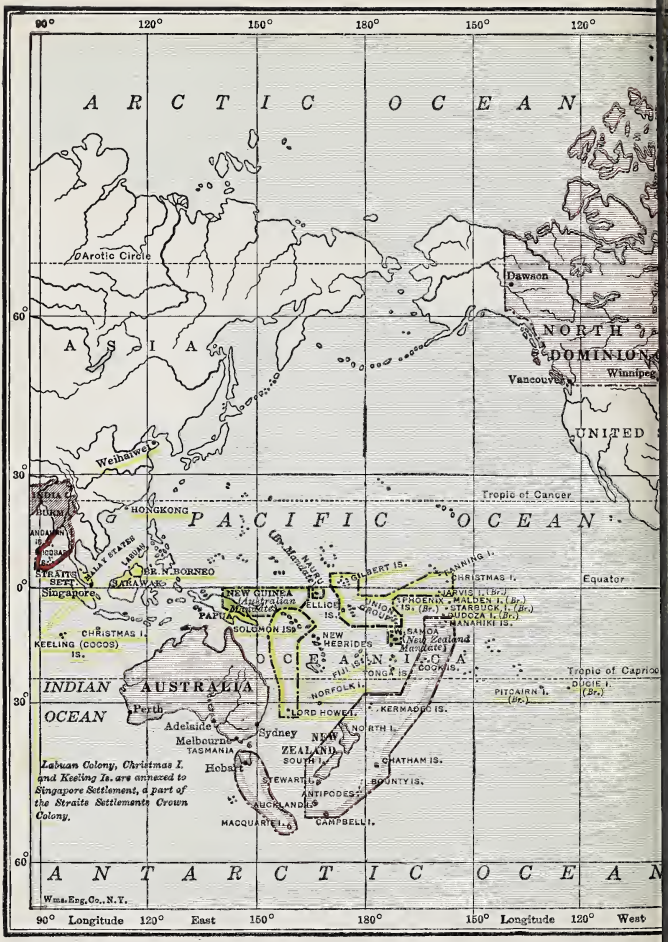
Although the organization of a self-governing Canada was politically necessary at the time, it was premature so far as the settlement of the Prairies was concerned. In 1870,



Courtesy Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology

INDIAN WOMEN WEAVING BLANKET, Esquimalt, B.C.
Paul Kane.

when Manitoba became a province, the stream of emigration from Europe to the United States was running in full strength, reaching a total of almost 400,000 in a single year, and was still flowing as strongly when the Canadian Pacific Railway was finished. To divert settlers to Canada was very difficult, and it was not until the end of the century that the Canadian Government, by the utmost efforts, was able to bring the attractions of its free land to the people of Europe. In the meantime, settlers from Ontario were busy establishing the Ontario pattern of farm life on the Prairies. In 1905 the time seemed to have come for estab-


90°
120°
150°
180°
150°
120°
A R C T I C O C E A N
Arctic Circle
Dawson
NORTH
DOMINION
Vancouver
Winnipeg
A S I A
UNITED
Weihaiwei
Tropic of Cancer
HONGKONG
P A C I F I C O C E A N
BURMA
ANDAMAN IS.
NICOBAR IS.
STRAITS SETT.
Singapore
SULU ARCHIPELAGO
LABUAN
BR. N. BORNEO
SARAWAK
Equator
GILBERT IS.
CHRISTMAS I.
NEW GUINEA (Australian Mandate)
PAPUA
SOLOMON IS.
PELLEW IS.
UNION GROUP
PHOENIX IS. (Br.)
MALDEN I. (Br.)
STARBUCK I. (Br.)
JUDDOA I. (Br.)
MANAHIKI IS.
CHRISTMAS I.
KEELING (COCOS) IS.
NEW HEBRIDES
SAMOA (New Zealand Mandate)
COOK IS.
FIJI IS.
TONGA IS.
Tropic of Capricorn
PITCAIRN I. (Br.)
DUCIE I. (Br.)
INDIAN OCEAN
AUSTRALIA
NORFOLK I.
Perth
LORD HOWE I.
KERMADEC IS.
Adelaide
Sydney
NORTH I.
Melbourne
TASMANIA
NEW ZEALAND
SOUTH I.
Hobart
CHATHAM IS.
STEWART I.
BOUNTY IS.
ANTIPODES IS.
AUCKLAND IS.
MACQUARIE I.
CAMPBELL I.
Labuan Colony, Christmas I. and Keeling Is. are annexed to Singapore Settlement, a part of the Straits Settlements Crown Colony.
A N T A R C T I C O C E A N
Wms. Eng. Co., N.Y.
90° Longitude 120° East 150° 180° 150° Longitude 120° West


60° 30° 0° 30° 60°
ARCTIC OCEAN
Arctic Circle
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SCOTLAND
GREAT BRITAIN
IRISH FREE STATE
London
EUROPE
ASIA
NEWFOUNDLAND
Halifax
Gibraltar
MALTA
CYPRUS
IRAK (Mandate)
PALESTINE MANDATE
BERMUDAS
BAHAMA IS.
Tropic of Cancer
Cairo
EGYPT
Baghdad
Delhi
INDIA
Calcutta
Bombay
LEEWARD IS.
WINDWARD IS.
BARBADOS
TRINIDAD
Georgetown
BR. GUIANA
JAMAICA
HONDURAS
GAMBIA
SIERRA LEONE
AFRICA
ANGLO-EGYPTIAN SUDAN
ADEN
KHORYA MORYA IS. (Br.)
SOKOTRA I. (Br.)
PERIM I. (Br.)
BR. SOMALI COAST
LACCADIVE IS. (Br.)
CEYLON
MALDIVE IS.
CAMEROON
UGANDA
KENYA
Equator
GOLD COAST
NIGERIA
SEYCHELLES
ZANZIBAR
AMIRANTES IS. (Br.)
TANGANYIKA (Mandate)
RUANDA-URUNDI
INDIAN OCEAN
ASCENSION I.
ST. HELENA I.
RODRIGUEZ I.
MAURITIUS I.
SOUTH AMERICA
Tropic of Capricorn
S.W. AFRICA (Mandate)
BECHUANALAND
Pretoria
TRANSVAAL
Johannesburg
ORANGE FREE STATE
NATAL
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
Cape Town
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE
FALKLAND IS.
SOUTH GEORGIA
SOUTH SHETLAND IS.
SOUTH ORKNEY IS.
GRAHAM LAND
Great Britain
Self-governing Dominions
India
Other Colonies
Egypt
Mandates
from 60° Greenwich 30° 0° 30° Longitude 60° East

MPIRE

lishing the two new Provinces of Saskatchewan and Alberta between Manitoba and the Rockies. This completed the continuous chain of self-governing units after the British-American pattern from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The northern half of the continent was thus firmly established as British territory.



Courtesy Canadian Pacific Railway

CENTRE ST. BRIDGE, CALGARY, ALBERTA

In its organization the Dominion of Canada is manifestly a mixture of American and British ideas. The privilege of forming new provinces and the offer of free land on the one-family farm basis manifestly hark back to the American model. On the other hand, the people of Canada are not sovereign; the head of the government is the King, represented by the Governor-General. The powers of the Crown are delegated to the provinces so far as is necessary for local self-government. The provinces exist by the permission of the Crown. In the United States, on the other

hand, the central government came into existence through the consent of the States. Nevertheless, the two systems are both Anglo-Saxon in origin and in their working have more resemblances than differences. In its industrial development Canada follows the same lines as the United States. In the East is a manufacturing region which has



Courtesy of Department of Interior, Ottawa, Canada

PARLIAMENT BUILDING AT OTTAWA

Where the Parliament of the Dominion of Canada holds its sessions.

grown up upon the trade of the Prairies. Both governments have deemed it necessary to establish high tariffs on imports. Both of them employ their whole man-power in agriculture and manufacturing, and both are strongly opposed to the waste of human labour involved in the maintenance of standing armies.

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

It has already been pointed out how the American Revolution and the spread of the liberty movement to

Mexico and South America resulted in the division of the world sharply into two hemispheres (page 540). The exclusion of European nations from the Americas, by virtue of the Monroe Doctrine, had the affect of diverting their colonial enterprises towards Asia and Africa. This effect showed itself most promptly in the case of Australia. This



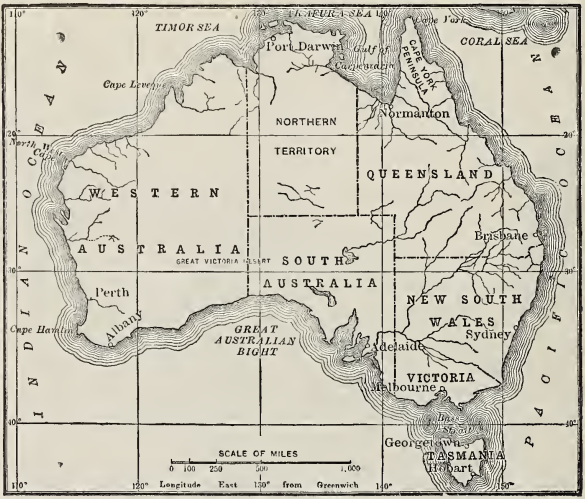
Government Publicity Photo

NAPIER FROM SHAKESPEARE CLIFF, NEW ZEALAND

island continent, which, owing to a peculiarity of our maps, looks smaller than it is, almost equals Canada or the United States in area. It was known to the Dutch as early as 1606 and was visited by Captain Cook in 1769, but European countries during the first colonial period had confined their interest to the Spice Islands, India and America.

It was the necessity of founding new penal settlements after the American Revolution that first led the English to make a settlement in Australia. From 1788 onwards vari-

ous convict colonies were founded, especially in Van Diemen's Land. From 1800 until 1850, however, the surplus population of England flowed for the most part to the United States, which offered a climate and life similar to those of the home-land. It was not until 1828 that the first few colonists arrived in Australia, and not until 1839 did they



AUSTRALIA

begin to settle in New Zealand. Then in 1851 gold was discovered in Australia, an event which exerted an attraction all the more powerful because the gold rush to California in the two previous years had already aroused the imaginations of adventurous Englishmen. The result was that by 1870 the population of the colony of Victoria alone had increased to over 700,000.

Just as in the United States and Canada, so also in Australia, separate colonies were founded, which in the course of time saw the wisdom of union. The chief of these were New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South

Australia, West Australia and Tasmania. It was in 1900 that these were united into the Commonwealth of Australia and the model followed was that of the Dominion of Canada. The example of the United States has since been adopted in setting aside a block of land, like the Federal District of Columbia, for the capital, and the name given to this is the Federal Capital Territory. The capital itself is called Canberra and the Commonwealth Parliament met there for the first time in 1927. The purpose of this arrangement is to

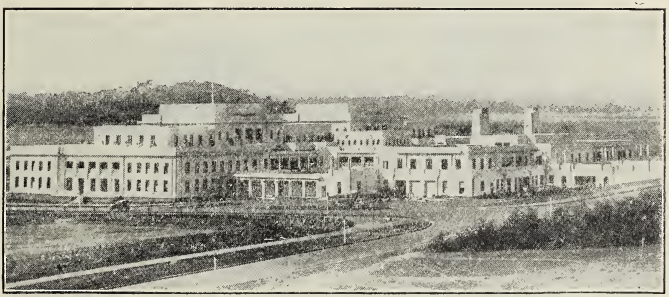


Photo from Ewing Galloway

CAPITOL AT CANBERRA

keep the capital distinct from any State of the Commonwealth.

The example of the United States and Canada has been followed in designating the more thinly settled districts as Territories. These are North Australia and Central Australia. A similarity between Australia and Canada lies in this, that the original settlers were British, and the distinctive character of the country as a member of the British Empire was permanently fixed before foreign relations developed. The country has this also in common with both Canada and the United States, that it was the discovery of gold in the middle of the nineteenth century that caused a beginning of Asiatic immigration. The aliens in all three instances were the Chinese. In all three countries the out-

come has been exclusion. This decision developed into a broad policy, namely, that these countries should be practically closed to all the races of Asia. This is a distinct trait of countries inhabited by Anglo-Saxons.



Courtesy Commonwealth Immigration Office

Wool Teams Bound for Railway Station, Australia

The Union of South Africa

Canada is an example of a colony that was French and became British. South Africa was Dutch, and became British. A British fleet took possession of Cape Town after the battle of Trafalgar in 1805. At that time it was of importance only because of the sea route to India around the Cape of Good Hope. The Dutch Boers did not welcome the English settlers and many of them migrated to the north-east, where they founded what became later the Orange Free State and the Transvaal Republic. The Liberal

Government of England in the middle of the century had no interest in colonies, but the discovery, in 1871, of diamond mines at Kimberly in the Orange Free State proved to be an event of compelling importance. In a few years these mines came under the control of one of the most forceful men of the nineteenth century, Cecil Rhodes. Among the men upon whom historians bestow the title of "empire-builder" he occupies a place near the top. It was his ambition to push the British settlements northward through Central Africa, and to join up with simultaneous advances from the north through Egypt and the Sudan. Although this great ambition was never quite fulfilled, Rhodes did more than any other man to shape the destiny of South Africa.

What brought South Africa into World History for once and all was the discovery of rich gold fields in the Rand District south of Pretoria in the Transvaal, in 1884. This caused such an increase in population that the city of Johannesburg came into existence almost overnight. The Dutch Boers called the newcomers Outlanders, and taxed them heavily without giving them a share in the government. In 1895 a rebellion was planned, and one of the chief instigators was Dr. Jameson, a friend of Rhodes, who controlled the diamond mines. Jameson led an armed raid, which was easily checked, but it attracted the attention of the world. The German Emperor sent a telegram of congratulation to the President of the Transvaal, Paul Krueger, and international feeling ran rather high.

By this time the situation elsewhere in Africa had completely changed. The continent was being carved up among the western powers of Europe. France had advanced from the west across the Sahara all the way to the Sudan. The king of Belgium had a fully developed colonial domain in the Congo region, and Great Britain was preparing to reconquer the Egyptian Sudan under General Kitchener. The grand project of uniting British Egypt

with British South Africa by railway connection, north and south through the centre of the continent, was already planned. Therefore, when the Boers stubbornly continued to refuse political equality to Englishmen, war was all but inevitable. The Boers threw down the gauntlet by declaring war in 1899. They won all the victories at first because the British were unprepared. Subsequently they were overcome by superior forces and had no choice but to submit.

This Boer War of 1899-1902 throws a flash of light on the political situation in the world at the end of the century. Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee had been celebrated in 1897, and was accompanied by a concentration of naval power such as the world had never seen and may never see again. This superiority on the seas accounts for the fact that Britain was able to transport overseas to South Africa a force of a quarter of a million men without interference from other European powers. Another outstanding feature of the situation was this, that the new British Empire as a group of self-governing commonwealths was rapidly maturing. The Queen's Jubilee had served to bring the Premiers and Governors of all the colonies together, and their common loyalty to a worthy sovereign was manifestly quickened. So it was not surprising that Canada and Australia voluntarily sent contingents of soldiers to aid the mother-country in this war. A new empire-consciousness had come into being.

This new empire-consciousness was also a stimulus to generous treatment after the war was over, because the defeat of the Boers was inevitable, no matter how valiantly they fought. The Orange Free State and the Transvaal Republic were annexed in 1900, though peace was not formally made until 1902. Once the Boers had taken their oath to be loyal British subjects the victors made it manifest that they desired to build and not to destroy. They furnished money to help them restore the ruined farmhouses and resume their usual occupations. The Transvaal Republic

was given self-government in 1906 and the Orange Free State in 1907. It was a logical sequel of this generous treatment to bestow upon all the South African states a greater measure of independence, and a federal form of government, framed on the Canadian model, was soon afterwards approved by the Parliament of Great Britain. Thus the Union of South Africa came into existence in 1910.

CHAPTER LVI

THE BALKAN QUESTION

Varying Importance of Balkan States—Encircling of the Balkans by European States—The Growing Pressure upon Austria—Effects of the Industrial Revolution—Russia Opposes the Plans of Austria—The Great Powers Protect Turkey—Russo-Turkish War of 1877-1878—Multiple Divisions of the Balkan Territory—Grand Designs of Kaiser William II—Internal Troubles of Russia—Young Turk Movement of 1908—General Balkan War, 1912-1913—Treaty of London—Exhaustion of the Balkan States—German Opinion of Other Nations—Magnificence of German Plans.

In the centre of southern Europe lies the blunt Balkan Peninsula. In ancient times it played an important role when states were small and the focus of civilization was in the Mediterranean. It lost its importance when the focus of civilization shifted to western and northern Europe in the Middle Ages. It regained importance as the Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century created vast markets in Central Europe for the food products which formed its sole exports. Politically it became a sort of excrescence on the continental system. Its virile races, habituated to life in the open among their flocks and herds, offered a vigorous resistance to the Turkish rulers on the one hand, and to the neighbouring Great Powers, who contemned them as political units too small to play independent roles in the grand game of continental affairs. A thread of unity will be discovered in their complicated history if the question is kept in mind, Why was it that the Great War began in these parts?

The development of modern Europe began at the circumference among the outlying states, and proceeded gradually towards the centre. The first national states emerged upon the Atlantic margin of the continent, Portugal, Spain, France, England, Norway, Denmark, and Sweden. Russia broke away from Asia and turned its face

once more to Europe in the sixteenth century; it became one of the Powers under Peter the Great at the beginning of the eighteenth century. Holland, another marginal state, won its independence from Spain in 1648. Belgium waited for autonomy until 1830. Greece joined the number of sovereign states in 1829. Italy and Germany became national states in 1871. This completed the circle around the Balkans, which from the sixteenth century had been subject to the Ottoman Turkish Empire.

This encircling movement eventually exerted more pressure upon Austria than upon other states. The outlying nations, Portugal, Spain, France, England, and the rest, had found an outlet for their energies in colonial enterprises and overseas commerce. The central states, Prussia, Russia and Austria, had found it more convenient to expand by seizing the lands of their weaker neighbours, such as Poland. Down to this point Austria had held her own with the other two. The tide turned with the Napoleonic Wars, when the Holy Roman Empire, long guided from Vienna, came to an end, though the Emperor still presided over the German Confederation. Even this nominal superiority was lost with the formation of the German Empire in 1871. In the same year Italy became a united kingdom, and gave to Austria a revengeful neighbour where previously she had nothing to fear.

At the same time that Germany was growing strong at the expense of Austria, the Industrial Revolution, which began in England at the end of the eighteenth century, was penetrating deeper and deeper into the continent. The growth of large cities that accompanied this movement augmented at an equal pace the importance of those areas which were still engaged in agriculture and stock-raising. This was especially true of little units like Serbia, where the peasants produced only food. Thus it was natural for Austria, which had been shrinking on the west and north and possessed no colonies overseas, to turn greedy eyes

upon the productive valleys of the Balkans. This became more markedly evident after she lost the rich provinces of Lombardy and Venetia in 1859 and 1866 respectively.

In the meantime the pressure from the north and the west was being matched by the ambitions of Russia on the east. Russia already had a port on the Baltic, taken from Sweden by Peter the Great, but she coveted the command of the Black Sea, where the climate was milder and her adjacent lands were far more fertile than in the north. She was balked in the design of securing this outlet by the Crimean War of 1854-1855, waged by France and England. This disappointment had the effect of diverting her enterprise towards Asia (page 588) but did not terminate her activity in Europe. It happened that a large proportion of the people in the Balkan states were, like the Russians, Slavs, and so Russia presumed to become the champion of her oppressed fellow-countrymen. This attitude was justified to no small degree by the fact that the Balkan peoples also belonged for the most part to the Greek Orthodox Church, the national church of Russia. Thus Russia and Austria became rivals and an area of friction developed between them. In the rest of Europe there were no wars after 1871. Thus the pivot of the Balance of Power was in the Balkans.

The shift of the storm-centre to south-central Europe completely reversed the attitude of the Great Powers towards Turkey. During the Crusades, when religious ideals ruled Europe, all the western nations had united to drive the Seljuk Turks out of the Holy Land. In the fifteenth century the same motives led them to unite unsuccessfully to keep the Ottoman Turks out of Europe. In the nineteenth century, when political rivalries ruled the Powers, they were content, for the sake of the Balance of Power, to allow the Turk to remain in Europe. France and England had protected Turkey against Russia in the Crimean War, but after the humiliation of France by

Prussia in 1870-1871 the chief friend of Turkey was England, which had a secret understanding with the Sultan.

The Turks appreciated the privileges of their position extremely well, but in 1875-1876 committed such atrocities against their rebellious Christian subjects of the Balkans that even the Great Powers were ashamed to defend them. In 1877 the Czar was permitted to declare war. By the spring of 1878 the Turks were in danger of losing Constantinople and, for the sake of peace, offered generous concessions of territory, which were accepted and approved. Then the Great Powers intervened. The British fleet approached the Dardanelles and the Austrian army was mobilized; Germany vouchsafed her sympathy. The treaty was consequently revised by a session of the Great Powers in Vienna. It was their choice to adopt the policy of carving up the Balkans into states so small that none would be able to exercise real power. Serbia and Montenegro were allowed their independence with a minimum of territory. Rumania lost Bessarabia to Russia and received a compensation on the other side. Bulgaria was cut in two, the northern part to be independent, the rest to be ruled by a Christian governor. Greece received a part of Thessaly. England received Cyprus, subject to Turkish tribute. Austria received Bosnia and Herzegovina on the western side, but only to occupy and protect; this proved to be the first step towards annexation, like the Japanese occupation of Korea. Japan, by the way, has been a close imitator of western nations.

The next change in the situation occurred with the accession of Kaiser William II in 1888. In 1890 he dismissed the cautious old minister Bismarck and proceeded to rule with the characteristic self-will of a true Hohenzollern. To Bismarck's ambitions for Germany there had been strict and reasonable bounds, but to Kaiser William's there were none. Germany was to be great by land and sea, in Africa, Asia and Europe alike. On the land side he

conceived a magnificent plan, which depended upon an alliance with Turkey. It chanced that Berlin, Vienna, Belgrade in Serbia, Sophia in Bulgaria, Constantinople, Aleppo in Syria, and Bagdad in Mesopotamia were conveniently situated to be principal stations on a great trunk railroad connecting Germany with the most fertile regions of the Near East. Such a design was sure to antagonize both Russia, because it would shut her out of Constantinople, and England, because it would touch India, but the risk did not deter the young Hohenzollern. Austria could be depended upon to co-operate, because she would be left free in the Balkans, and Italy seemed to be friendly on account of a clash with France in Africa. Germany, Austria and Italy had formed the Triple Alliance in 1882.

External events furthered the Kaiser's ambitions for a time. In 1904-1905 Russia was soundly defeated in the Far East by Japan. This disaster was followed by a distressful time at home. It was necessary to put down violent uprisings of socialists, and the Czar was forced to assemble a sort of parliament, called the Duma. This was the signal for one crisis after another, and each one seemed to weaken the government. Freedom of the Press and religious toleration were conceded. The village communes were dissolved and the peasants received their lands as private property. It seemed as if Liberalism, as the movement towards constitutional government was then called, was making real headway. If in the meanwhile the Russian armies were becoming more efficient, the fact escaped observation.

While these changes were going on in Russia the situation was steadily ripening in the Balkans. Little as the small states loved one another, they had common grounds of indignation in the pro-Turkish policy of Germany and Austria. They were encouraged by a revolution in Constantinople in 1908, when the party calling themselves Young Turks overthrew the Sultan and attempted to establish parliamentary government. Prince Ferdinand of

Bulgaria promptly declared his country independent and assumed the title of Czar. Austria, however, was equally encouraged, and promptly annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina.

The example of Bulgaria on the one hand and the tyranny of Austria on the other accelerated the inevitable outbreak. Fortunately, at this juncture an able Greek statesman named Venizelos was able to capitalize the common wrongs by uniting Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia and Montenegro in a war against Turkey. The Great Powers looked quietly on, confident in the ability of the Turks to defend themselves. Greatly to their astonishment, the Balkan states were victorious in every field. Even the Great Powers then lacked the audacity to reclaim for the Turks what they had lost, but they arranged that no Balkan state should be very strong and that none should retain all it had conquered. This was the Treaty of London, 1913. This was the last of those Congresses of the Great Powers by which the agreements of smaller states were revised. After the Great War their place was taken by the League of Nations.

The Treaty of London was so galling to Serbia that she declared war upon Bulgaria, and other states joined in. Slight adjustments of territory took place, which were more satisfactory, but far more important was the fact that all the belligerents were exhausted. This was Austria's opportunity, and the Great War became imminent, because Austria was dominated by war-hungry Germany. The situation was being handled by remote control.

Kaiser William and his military friends were then at the peak of their pride and confidence. They regarded the French as a decadent race, because of the limited birth-rate. They looked down upon England because of its small standing army. They lumped the English and the Americans in one class because their chief concern was believed to be money. They thought the British Empire too loose an organization to heed a call to arms. They believed their

own culture (*kultur*) to be so superior to all others that the nations would be blessed by having it forced upon them. The Kaiser himself personified enlightened despotism with a divine mission. It did not occur to him that he was misjudging his own people no less than other races. It did not occur to him that the very industrial supremacy of Germany was due to the exclusion of intellectual men from political careers.

The German plans, taken in their entirety, would have been worthy of Genghis Khan or Tamerlane. The first plan was to crush France by one sledge-hammer blow, as in 1870, which would win possession of the channel ports and the French colonies. The next would have been a similar swift campaign against Russia, because Prussia had always coveted the fertile provinces on her eastern border. In the meantime Austria was to crush Serbia and secure the free operation of the Berlin-Bagdad Railway. The mastery of Europe once secured, the final chapter would have been a struggle with Great Britain for world domination. Nothing turned out according to this long contemplated and well considered programme.



EUROPE IN 1914

CHAPTER LVII

THE GREAT WAR, 1914-1918

Murder of the Heir to the Austrian Throne—Secret Agreement of Germany and Austria—The "Scrap of Paper"—Preparedness of Germany and Austria.

THE FIGHTING.—Mechanized Warfare—The Sweep Towards Paris—Successful Defense of the Channel—Verdun: "They Shall Not Pass"—Appearance of the Tank, 1916—Devastation of Belgium and France.

THE EASTERN FRONT.—Russian Forces Repulsed—The Russian Revolutions, 1917.

THE BALKANS.—Turkey and Bulgaria Take the German Side—Defeat of the Allies at Gallipoli—Italy Joins the Allies, 1915—Retreat of Italian Armies, 1917.

THE COLONIES.—The Allies Capture the German Colonies—The Japanese Capture Kiaochow—Turkey Loses Egypt, Palestine and Arabia.

ON THE SEA.—Defeat of the Germans by Sea—British Blockade of German Ports.

THE ENTRY OF THE UNITED STATES.—Horrors of German Submarine Warfare—German Activities in America—President Wilson Speaks for the Allies—Magnitude of American Aid—President Wilson's "Fourteen Points".

LAST YEAR OF THE WAR, 1918.—Germany Makes the Supreme Effort—General Foch Given Command of All Allied Armies—Grand Counter-Offensive.

THE CRASH OF THRONES.—Collapse of Bulgaria and Turkey—Revolutions in Austria and Germany—The Armistice, November 11th.

War is a state of mind, and the party that is resolved to make war has the choice of the hour for beginning. The incident that Germany chose to make the occasion of hostilities was the assassination on June 28, 1914, of the heir to the Austrian throne, the Archduke, Francis Ferdinand. This crime was the deed of a Bosnian student and occurred at Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia. It was not proved that he had acted under instructions as an agent of Serbian officials, but the motive was manifestly political. Austria had taken possession of Bosnia, which by rights should have belonged to Serbia. Wherever the guilt may have lain, three weeks after the murder, on July 23, Serbia

received an ultimatum from Austria, couched in terms that she could not accept; it was demanded that all officials and teachers who were unsympathetic towards Austria should be dismissed and that agents of Austria should be received to insure that these measures be carried out.

Only two days were allowed for consideration. This interval witnessed frantic activity in the seats of Government in Europe. Sir Edward Grey, Minister for Foreign Affairs in the British Government, suggested that the four powers not directly involved in Serbia, namely, France, Italy, Russia and Germany should meet in London to work out a solution. Germany refused. Other efforts were made to avert war but these were altogether vain, because papers came to light in 1919 which showed that Germany and Austria had come to an understanding as early as July 7.

From this point onwards nothing turned out exactly as Germany had planned. Russia began to mobilize her armies against Austria-Hungary on July 29, and against Germany on July 30. France also began to mobilize as an ally of Russia, and received Germany's declaration of war on August 3. Great Britain had an agreement with the French made in 1912 and was bound to protect the west coast of France by sea. It was, however, the German invasion of Belgium on August 4 that really brought Britain into the war. This move was required both on principle and by treaty; it would have been impossible to see the shore so near to England occupied by a powerful rival or enemy; there was also a treaty pledging Britain to the defence of Belgium, dated in 1839. The Kaiser felt this treaty a mere pretext for Britain's action and referred to it as a "scrap of paper". This was one of these unfortunate remarks of his that furnished his enemies with effective propaganda out of his own mouth.

At first all the advantages were on the side of Germany and Austria. The moment for beginning was their choice and all their preparations were complete. The whole

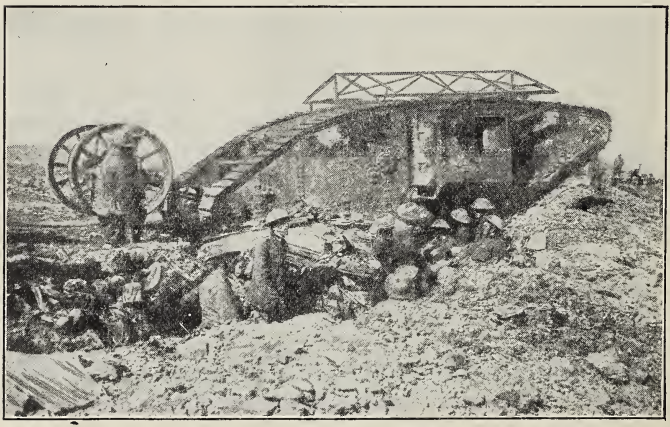
population had been trained through years of propaganda for this glorious enterprise. They entered the war with a complete understanding of what they should do and what they were trying to accomplish. Their opponents, on the other hand, prepared to defend themselves without enthusiasm, but with a certain cool courage, because they believed that peace was a long way off. They were not equally prepared and knew well that a year or more must elapse before the manufacture of guns and shells could be speeded up to a degree that would permit of offensive warefare.

The Fighting

As a general thing only the results of wars are of consequence in World History, but the Great War was so different from all others which preceded it that some account of the fighting must be given. From first to last there was no display of startling strategy such as is known in the campaigns of Alexander the Great, Hannibal, Julius Caesar, Genghis Khan or Tamerlane. There were no dashing cavalry charges as in the Crimean War or the American Civil War. Few reputations were made and the real glory was conceded to the unknown soldier. Examples of individual heroism were so innumerable as to be obscure through their very multitude. The murderous machine-gun won for itself no glory, no matter how effective. The tank was perhaps the only new weapon employed, but its clumsy manoeuvres only tended to prove the ugliness of mechanized warfare. The rapid development of aeroplanes drew the attention of men to the melancholy fact that applied science finds greater rewards in times of war than in times of peace.

The huge German armies were naturally directed first against France in the hope of delivering a single crushing blow, as had been done in 1870. They were swiftly moved to the borders by railways built for this very purpose. They violated the neutrality of Belgium and Luxemburg.

The Belgians offered unexpected resistance and delayed the advance for twelve days. For their valour they paid dearly both in destruction of property and in systematic executions. Nevertheless, the Germans were soon on their way again, approaching Paris in a wide arc with its centre thrust forward. On the north it was opposed by the small British army of 150,000 regular troops, desperately fighting to delay the advance. The rest of the line was opposed by the



A Tank

Tanks were used in battle for the first time in 1916.

French. When the German centre had crossed the Marne River and was within fifteen miles of Paris, the Allies took the offensive. The battle of the Marne lasted for seven days. The Germans were forced back beyond the Aisne River. There both sides began to dig themselves in, and trench warfare began.

In the meantime the Allies had outraced the Germans to the Channel, thus saving for themselves the ports of Calais and Dunkirk, which they held throughout the war. These were saved at the price of the battle of Ypres and the

flooding of an area of Belgium by the cutting of a dyke in the valley of the Yser. A second battle at Ypres occurred in the spring of 1915, where the Germans used clouds of poisonous gas for the first time. The Canadian troops were the first to suffer from this barbarity, but stood their ground with the unfailing gallantry which they displayed throughout the war. It was not difficult to manufacture gas-masks as a protection against this peril, but it required some months to produce an adequate supply. It was during this year that the Allies suffered most because of unpreparedness. Neither French nor English had sufficient field guns and high-explosive shells to prepare properly for attacks of infantry against German trenches.

The first half of the year 1916 witnessed the expenditure of half a million lives over the French fortress of Verdun. The Germans were determined to capture it at any price, while the French were equally determined to hold it. It was at this time that the words "They shall not pass" became the battle cry of France. Verdun was not captured and a few months later, in the autumn, the French took the offensive and drove back the Germans in a few short hours almost to the point from which they had advanced to the siege.

Down to this time a practical deadlock prevailed upon the whole western front from the Channel to Switzerland, a distance of six hundred miles. In this year, however, the "tank" made its appearance. This was the most effective addition to the machinery of offensive warfare made in modern times, and it was a British invention. It was simply an armoured car built upon the plan of an American caterpillar tractor. The secret of its preparation had been perfectly kept, and its irresistible advance through barbed wire entanglements and over trenches at the battle of the Somme in midsummer was a complete surprise. The Allies, including many Canadians, thrust back the enemy to a depth of nine miles on a twenty-mile front. For this attack there

was for the first time a really ample equipment of field guns and high-explosive shells. The realization of all this probably accounts for the retirement of the Germans to the shorter Hindenberg line in the spring of 1917.

These four years, from 1914-1917, witnessed an incessant destruction of property in Belgium and France, Fruit trees were cut down and vineyards torn up. Buildings were destroyed by fire and by shells. The famous library of Louvain was burned; the historic Cloth Hall of Ypres and the cathedral of Rheims were pitifully defaced by shells. This hideous destruction, however, was as nothing to the gratuitous cruelty of the Germans to the Belgians and the French behind the lines. Thousands of men and women were deported into Germany to labour for their conquerors. Groups of villagers were lined up and shot for trifling disobedience. An English nurse, Edith Cavell, was shot as a spy for concealing a fugitive.

The Eastern Front

The outcome of the fighting on the eastern front was utterly different. The entrance of the Russians into the war was greeted with great enthusiasm by the Allies and countries friendly to them. They despatched two armies, the first into East Prussia and the second into Galicia against the Austrians. The former was decisively beaten in 1914, and after re-organization was repulsed a second time early in 1915. The campaign against Austria was at first successful, but in 1915 ended in complete disaster. In 1916 Russia again raised the hopes of the Allies to a high pitch by a smashing counter-campaign brilliantly conducted by General Brusilov. Then in 1917 came the Russian Revolution, which is the first chapter of another story.

There were in reality three revolutions. In March the Czar was forced to abdicate and a committee of the Duma took charge of affairs. This change was hailed among western nations as a triumph of liberty, but the rejoicing

was tragically premature. In July a second revolution took place and the socialists formed a government. This was the work of the soldiers and of Working Men's Councils, known as Soviets, but it was not radical enough for the majority party, who called themselves Bolsheviki. In November the third revolution occurred, headed by Nicholas Lenin and Leon Trotsky, both of them veterans of imprisonment and exile. They proceeded to murder the royal family, the aristocrats and the intellectual classes (intelligentsia). Civil war broke out between the Red armies and the White Armies, the latter aided by the Allies. The Reds were victorious, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.) emerged. In 1919 the Third International was organized for the purpose of promoting world-wide revolution, and it did succeed for a time in creating world-wide fear and dread.

The Balkans

The miseries of the war in the Balkans were unspeakable, but the issue was not to be decided on this front, and to describe the course of the fighting would only make it appear more important than it really was. Suffice it to say that Turkey, as might have been expected, and then Bulgaria, threw in their lot with the Germans. Rumania joined the Allies in 1916 and paid for it promptly by falling into German hands. Turkey repulsed the Anglo-French fleet from Constantinople in 1915, and prevented the Australian and New Zealand troops (Anzacs) from establishing themselves in the Gallipoli Peninsula. Greece had a pro-German king until 1917, when he was deposed by the Allies.

On the west the sympathy of Italy was entirely with the Allies, but she was a member of the Triple Alliance, of which the other members were Germany and Austria-Hungary. Nevertheless, the opportunity of winning back the Italian provinces of Austria was not to be resisted long. The decision was made in 1915. In the summer of 1916

the Italian troops by an extended advance had reached Gorizia on the way to Trieste, but in 1917 they were ingloriously driven back. This point marks the peak of success for the Central Powers.

The Colonies

Germany was not able to protect her colonies. Togo and the Cameroons in West Africa fell to the British and French, German South-West Africa to the Union of South Africa, and German East Africa to the British and Belgians. Kiaochow, the German naval base in China, and the German stronghold of the Far East, was captured in 1914 by the Japanese, who were not only bound to the British by the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, but also felt resentment against the Germans because the Kaiser had spoken slightingly of them and had helped to prevent their retention of Port Arthur after the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895 (page 604). German island possessions in the Pacific were taken over by Australia, New Zealand and Japan.

Turkey paid for her adherence to Germany by the loss of Egypt, which, though under British rule, had been subject to an annual tribute. Early in 1917 a British force moved up the Tigris River and seized Bagdad, ancient home of the Caliphs. Late in the same year another British force occupied Jerusalem. In the meantime the Arabs rebelled against Turkey, took possession of the sacred cities of Medina and Mecca, and established the new Kingdom of Hejaz along the east coast of the Red Sea.

On The Sea

When the war broke out the only German fleet at sea was in the South Pacific Ocean. It won a victory over a smaller British force, but within a few weeks was itself destroyed off the Falkland Islands. The German cruiser *Emden*, after sinking merchant vessels in the Indian Ocean,

was itself destroyed by an Australian cruiser. The *Goeben* and the *Breslau*, which happened to be in the Mediterranean, took refuge in Constantinople. The main German fleet ventured once out of the Kiel Canal in 1916 and engaged in battle with the British fleet off the coast of Jutland. The result was doubtful, but the German fleet withdrew at night, to be heard of no more until news of a revolution among the crews was reported in 1918.

Even before the war broke out a large British fleet was concentrated in the North Sea, and no time was lost in declaring a blockade of German ports. At first this applied only to ships carrying materials of war, but in 1915 foodstuffs were added to the list, even if carried in ships of neutral countries. Against this blockade the weapon of the Germans was the submarine. At first they used this to sink warships only, but soon afterwards took to sinking enemy freight boats without warning, which is a violation of the law of nations.

The Entry of the United States

To sink neutral ships contrary to the law of nations is piracy. It was this submarine piracy that brought the United States into the war. Ever since the American Revolution the treatment of neutrals on the high seas had been a sore point with Congress. It was one cause of the War of 1812-1815 between Great Britain and the United States. Germany could have chosen no more effective way of forfeiting the good-will of the American people. The sinking of smaller boats aroused American indignation but the destruction of the *Lusitania* off the coast of Ireland on May 7, 1915, with the loss of 1198 lives, horrified the whole world. This and lesser crimes were the occasion of a spirited correspondence between President Wilson and the German government. The President's demand that care should be exercised for the lives of passengers evoked specious promises, but the atrocities went on. In January,

1917, the German government was so delighted with its success in sinking 180 ships within the month that on February 1 a decision was made to notify the nations that the seas surrounding the British Isles should be a war zone, within which even neutral ships would be sunk. The Mediterranean was also made a war zone.

There were other reasons for American resentment besides the submarine campaign. For example, Mexico was tempted with an offer of alliance on the prospect of recovering Texas and Arizona. Everywhere throughout the United States agents were busy arousing German citizens to display hostility to the Allies. Attempts had been made to destroy factories which were furnishing shell-cases and steel to the Allies. Evidence even came to light to prove that money had been sent to the German Ambassador with which to bribe members of Congress. Nevertheless, it was not until April 6, 1917, that Congress declared war on Germany, and not until December that the same action was taken against Austria-Hungary.

The entry of the United States into the war at once made President Wilson the spokesman of the Allies, and he continued to hold this place for two years. This was partly due to the long neutrality of the United States throughout the nineteenth century, and partly to the lofty character and keen analytical mind of the President himself. He disavowed all enmity towards the German people, whom he believed to have been misled by selfish and egotistical rulers. He declared himself against beliefs and practices that had prevailed in Europe for centuries, the divine right of kings, the negotiation of secret treaties and the maintenance of huge armies. To his mind the purpose of the war was "to make the world safe for democracy". From selfish motives the government of the United States was quite free. It looked forward neither to acquisitions of new territory nor to the imposition of war indemnities.

The vast resources of the United States both in money

and in man-power were at once placed at the disposal of the Allies. Battleships, torpedo boats and destroyers were sent to join the British fleet in the North Sea. By their joint labours a barrage of explosive mines was laid over the wide gap of 240 miles between the Orkney Islands and the coast of Norway. This was to stop the movement of German submarines. Ten million men were registered for military service under conscription. Measures were taken for the conservation of food and fuel, and all railroads, express companies and telegraph lines were placed under government control. Plans were made and carried out to construct docks, warehouses, barracks and railways in France. Other countries were influenced by the example of the United States to declare war, and in 1917 nineteen countries in all were with the Allies.

It was in an address to Congress on January 8, 1918, that President Wilson enunciated his famous Fourteen Points as the basis of a settlement that should follow the war in the interests of a lasting peace:

1. Open covenants of peace openly arrived at, and no others.

2. Absolute freedom of the seas in peace and war unless it should prove necessary to discipline some state by joint action of the nations.

3. Equality of trade conditions among all nations consenting to the peace.

4. Reduction of armies and navies to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.

5. In settling colonial questions the interests of the people should have equal weight with the claims of governments.

6. Russia should have an unhampered opportunity for the independent determination of her own political development.

7. The complete restoration of Belgium as a sovereign state.

8. The complete restoration of French territory, including Alsace-Lorraine, seized by Prussia in 1871.

9. The readjustment of the frontiers of Italy so that all Italian populations should be included in the Italian state.

10. All the races of Austria-Hungary should be guaranteed the privilege of self-government.

11. The Balkan States should be evacuated, their boundaries fixed according to nationalities and their independence guaranteed.

12. Turkey should be recognized as a sovereign state but the races under Turkish rule should be guaranteed against massacre and interference with liberty; the Dardanelles should be open to ships of all nations.

13. The restoration of Poland as an independent state and including all populations indisputably Polish.

14. The formation of a general association of nations "for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike".

Last Year of the War, 1918

The same year that the Allies were strengthened by the entrance of the United States into the war witnessed the collapse of the Romanov Dynasty in Russia. This event belongs rather in the history of Socialism, but has been described in this chapter (pages 646-647). At this point it is sufficient to say that on March 3, 1918, a treaty between the new Russian Government and the Central Powers was signed at Brest-Litovsk, which meant for the Germans an immense acquisition of valuable mines and land, and free-

dom to throw their whole weight against the Allies on the western front.

It was in the spring of 1918 that Germany made her supreme effort. In the northern part of the line a great concentration of guns and men was effected with the aim of driving a wedge between the British and the French. The fighting that followed was the cruellest of the whole war, and in the space of a few days most of the ground was lost that the Allies had slowly gained in 1916 and 1917. This disaster strained the courage of the Allies as nothing that had happened before, and forced them of necessity to forget their differences and to offer the supreme command to General Foch. Before the wisdom of this appointment could be demonstrated another German drive between Soissons and Rheims reached once more a point on the Marne River at Château-Thierry, where American troops helped the French to check the advance. This was only forty-three miles from Paris, but subsequent assaults failed to diminish the distance.

Meanwhile, although German submarines sank 2,500 ships in 1917, a million American soldiers had been transported across the Atlantic without the loss of a single man. In addition to these forces others had arrived from Great Britain and Italy, and by July 18, 1918, General Foch began a carefully planned counter-offensive, which succeeded along the whole line. The Marne salient was cleared by the French and Americans. At the St. Mihiel salient, south of Verdun, the Americans swept the Germans back without allied aid. The Hindenburg Line was soon afterwards broken and Flanders cleared of enemy troops by the Belgians, British and French.

Beginning with the second battle of Ypres in 1915 Canadian troops were continually engaged in one major engagement after another, and German officers soon learned to expect the hardest kind of fighting wherever they were encountered. In 1917 they proved their prowess by cap-

turing, first, Vimy Ridge and, later, Passchendaele, both of them outstanding accomplishments of the whole war. In 1918 they drove the Germans back from Amiens, broke through the Hindenburg Line and captured Cambrai. There were at the last four divisions in all, commanded by Lieut.-Gen. Sir Arthur Currie. British soldiers and sailors from other Dominions acquitted themselves with equal distinction.

The Crash of Thrones

The series of events that began after the retreat of the Germans revealed to the world the true drift of events in the nineteenth century and the real issue at stake in the Great War. The real drift was not single but double, towards liberal democracy (parliamentary government) and towards Socialism, and the real issue was this, whether Europe should by ruled by benevolent despots, houses of parliament, or socialistic councils. The fall of the despots left the field to democracy and Socialism. Fascism appeared soon afterwards as a post-war development.

The first royal personage to step down was Czar Ferdinand of Bulgaria. The collapse of his country in September was due to the assault of a mixed army of British, French, Greeks and Serbs. Only a month passed when the resistance of Turkey came to an end, broken down by British advances from Jerusalem towards Damascus and up the Tigris in Mesopotamia. Four days later Austria-Hungary gave up the struggle after a headlong retreat before the Italians along the whole line from the Alps to the head of the Adriatic. As a result of this the Emperor Charles I surrendered his crown, which had belonged to his family, the Hapsburgs, for six hundred years. The climax of this crash of crowns was the flight of William, King of Prussia and German Emperor, to Holland. Germany and Austria became semi-socialistic republics.

The date of the Armistice on the western front was

November 11. The terms of it were such as any one might have expected: the surrender of warships, submarines, cannon, machine guns and aeroplanes; the withdrawal of German troops from all the occupied territory and Alsace-Lorraine; submission to the occupation of the Rhine Valley, including the principle bridges and their approaches, by Allied and American troops.

The signing of the Armistice was like turning back the pages of history. Not only had the old royal families, such as the Hapsburgs, the Hohenzollerns, and the Romanovs, retired from the stage, but a score of smaller countries proceeded to reclaim an independence of which they had long before been deprived. When the Great War began there were eighteen sovereign states on the map of Europe. When the Peace Conference had finished its work there were twenty-seven.

CHAPTER LVIII

THE PEACE CONFERENCE

Composition of the Peace Conference—The Covenant of the League of Nations—Organization of the League—Function of the League—The Importance of Public Opinion.

THE PEACE TREATIES.—Action of the United States—Principles of Settlement—New Sovereign States.

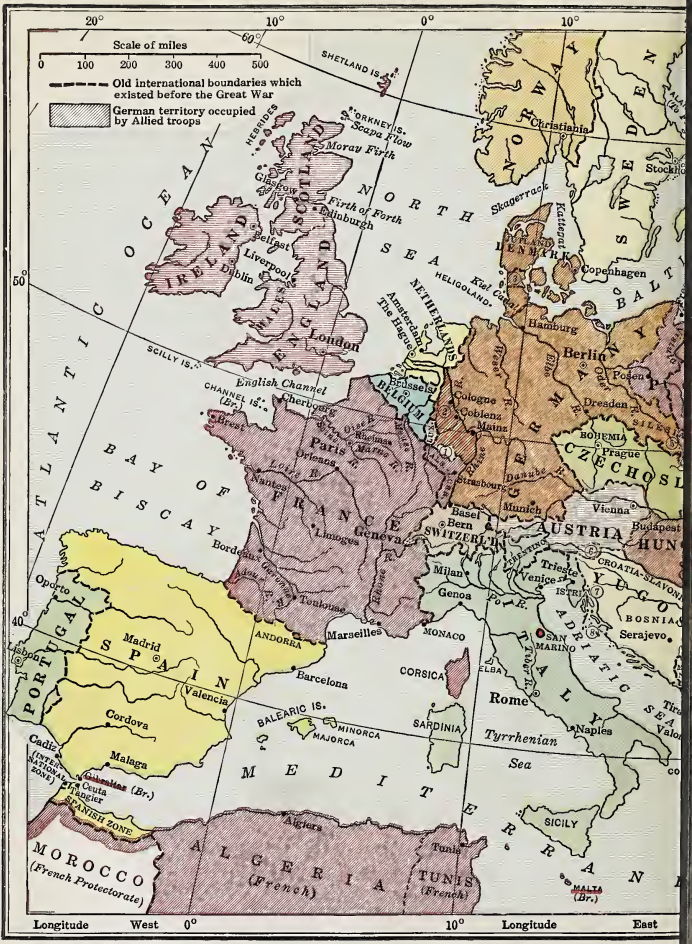
MANDATED TERRITORIES.—The Meaning of Mandate—Palestine, Syria and German Colonies—Protection of Native Races.

REPARATIONS.—The Sum Demanded of Germany—The Burden of War Debts.

THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION.—Origin of the Labour Organization—The Working of the Organization—Accomplishments of the Organization.

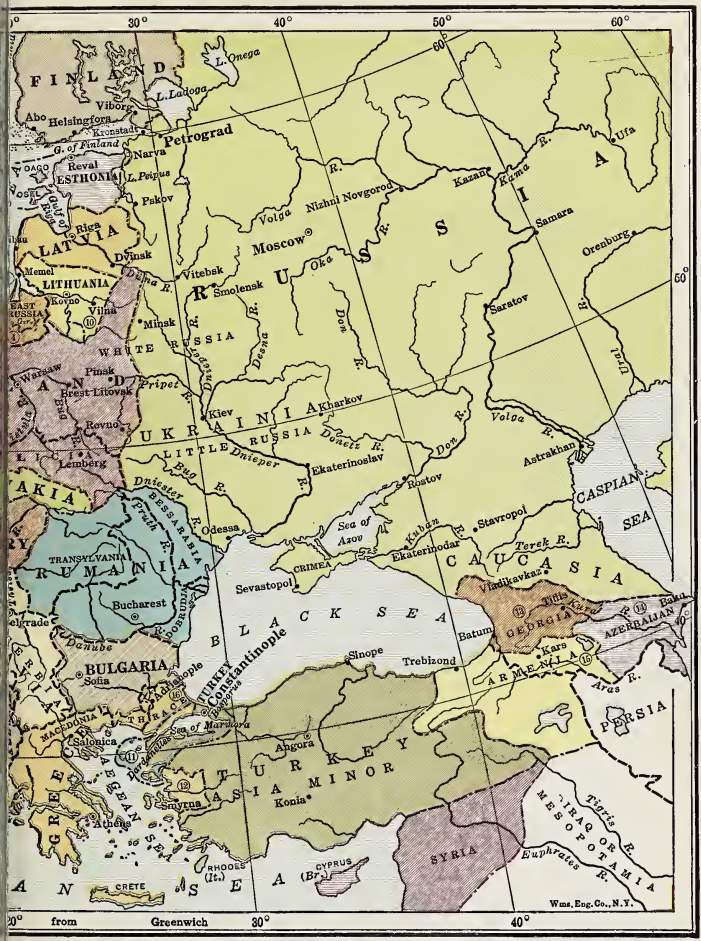
THE PERMANENT COURT OF INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE.—Composition of the Court.

Just as the Great War surpassed in magnitude all other wars, so the task of making peace was the most difficult ever undertaken. It was arranged that the peacemakers should assemble in the palace of Louis XIV at Versailles, outside of Paris. All the allied countries and even neutral states were represented, and all were accompanied by throngs of expert advisers upon every phase of geography and history. For the first time the British Dominions were permitted to have separate representation, namely, the Dominion of Canada, the Union of South Africa, the Commonwealth of Australia, and New Zealand. At first there was a Supreme Council of ten men, consisting of two representatives each of the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan. The most contentious problems, however, were solved by a Council of Four, Clemenceau, Lloyd George and Orlando, premiers of France, England and Italy respectively, and President Wilson. The work of the Peace Conference was twofold, first, to draft peace treaties with the Central Powers and second, to form a League of Nations.



EUROPE AFTER T

(1) Saar Basin under League of Nations until 1935, then plebiscite; coal mines Denmark after plebiscite. (4) Plebiscites here favored Germany. (5) Upper Sile remain in Austria. (7) Free state of Fiume, established 1920, but annexed to Italy (10) Vilna was part of Lithuania but was annexed by Poland, 1922. (11) Zone of Greece under treaty of 1920, regained by Turkey in 1922. (13) and (14) Republ western part was conquered by Turkey and eastern part federated with Russia, 19



EACE OF PARIS

rance. (2) Eupen and Malmédy to Belgium. (3) Northern Schleswig annexed by
ch mining district divided between Germany and Poland. (6) Klagenfurt, voted to
924. (8) Zara, ceded to Italy. (9) Memel, district given by Allies to Lithuania, 1923.
traits under international commission; boundaries changed in 1923. (12) Occupied by
derated with Russia. (15) Armenia was recognized as republic by treaty, 1920, but
16) Ceded to Greece, 1920; regained by Turkey, 1923.

It was necessary to outline a plan for the League of Nations before the Peace Treaties were drawn up, because the Covenant of the League was to be part of the Treaties. The Covenant is a solemn agreement entered into by all nations who become members; these are referred to in the

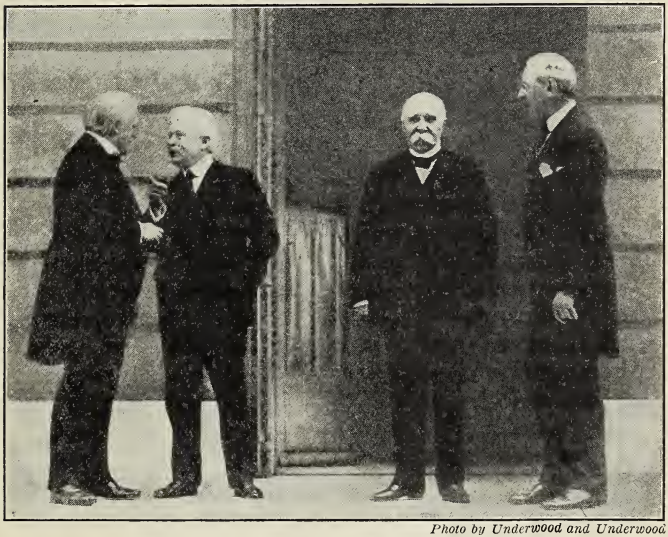


Photo by Underwood and Underwood

THE "BIG FOUR" AT THE PEACE CONFERENCE

From left to right—Premier Lloyd George of Great Britain, Premier Orlando of Italy, Premier Clemenceau of France, and President Wilson. After Italy withdrew from the Peace Conference, because Wilson opposed Italian demands, the "Big Four" became the "Big Three."

document as the High Contracting Parties. They pledge themselves to shun recourse to war, to deal openly, honestly and fairly with one another, to recognize international law as a code of conduct, and to observe faithfully all treaties they may make with one another. The pledges were stated in very general terms for the excellent reason that the

League was something new in world affairs and an experiment. It was not thought possible or wise to demand more at the time. It was deemed essential that public opinion in favour of the League should be given time and opportunity to grow strong.

The League, although by no means a State, is organized and conducted somewhat after the manner of a democratic or parliamentary government. There is free discussion of world affairs in the Assembly of the League, to which each member nation sends three delegates; it meets once a year in September. There is also a Council of the League, which meets three or four times a year. At present (1933) it consists of five permanent members and nine non-permanent members. The permanent members are France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy and Japan. The non-permanent members are elected in groups of three to serve for three years; for example, Poland, Mexico and Czechoslovakia were elected in 1932 to serve until 1935. Each member nation sends one delegate to the Council and each has but one vote; the weakest nation in this respect is on a par with the strongest.

The Assembly elects a President, who may be compared to the Speaker in parliamentary bodies. The drafting of measures is naturally done by the Council, assisted by various committees. At all times there is a Secretary-General resident in Geneva, who is the head of a staff of some 500 clerks and officials, drawn from many nationalities. The buildings consist of an Assembly Hall, an Office Building and a Library. The annual expenses are assessed upon the members of the League in proportion to their ability to pay; the budget for 1932-1933 was $6,500,000. Several million dollars have also been received in gifts, chiefly from Americans, although the United States is not a member of the League.

The aims of the League are to promote world peace, disarmament, and the health of mankind; the suppression

of slavery and the traffic in habit-forming drugs; the protection of helpless races and of racial minorities who find themselves under alien and unsympathetic governments. It favours no colour, creed or nationality. All humankind may appeal for its assistance.

The formation of the League was a milestone in World History. It completely changed the relationships of nations. Down to the time when it began to operate, January 10, 1920, there was no organized body or court to which nations were answerable for their conduct. If any nation had a grievance against its neighbour, it sought redress as best it could. If it had treaties with other nations, it was responsible only to them for the fulfilment of its promises. After January, 1920, each nation that signed one of the Peace Treaties became answerable to the League of Nations. Likewise, each nation that felt itself wronged possessed the privilege of laying its complaint before the League. The League itself, however, is not a "super-state"; it possesses no armies and no navies; it does not undertake to impose punishment. What it does undertake is to hear with an open mind the evidence submitted to it, to weigh it impartially, and to decide whether injustice has been done or not. It brings the accused nation before the bar of the public opinion of the world. It exercises moral force but not physical force.

The formation of the League was made feasible through the advances of modern science. In days before the invention of the telegraph, the submarine cable, and radio, there was hardly such a thing as world-wide public opinion. The impact of news upon men's minds depends upon its abundance and the rapidity with which it travels. In the old days it required six months or a year for news to make the circuit of the globe; it was stale when it arrived, and it was usually meagre. Nowadays all people who read newspapers may learn in the morning what has happened at the opposite side of the world a few hours previously, and they may

learn it with some fullness. Rapid communication has brought all mankind together. Nevertheless, it must be remembered that rapid communication is still new. The novelty of it still bewilders public judgment of world affairs. In 1920 public opinion was still less informed than it is now. Those who framed the Covenant of the League really anticipated future developments, and they gave to public opinion a basis of self-education. Under the heading THE PROGRESS OF PEACE it will be told what the League has accomplished in thirteen years (page 774).

THE PEACE TREATIES

The preliminary work of the Peace Conference required three months, and it was not until June 28, 1919, that the Treaty of Peace with Germany was signed. Even then, it was not effective until it had been approved by three of the Great Powers. This formal ratification did not take place until January 10, 1920. Even then the United States was still technically at war with Germany, because the Senate had refused to approve it. It was not until a new president took office in 1921 that Congress declared the war with Germany to be at an end. The opposition of the Senate was based upon two reasons, first, the consistent determination of the government to keep free of European entanglements, and second, the fear of placing the army and navy of the United States at the disposal of the League, which seemed inconsistent with the legal right of Congress to declare war.

In the formation of the kingdom of Italy between 1859 and 1870 the principle had been adopted of allowing the populations of various states to vote for or against adherence to the new government (page 563). This principle was adopted as fundamental at the Peace Conference. The old practice of rewarding the victors and punishing the conquered was replaced by the will to give justice to the various populations themselves. For example, Alsace-

Lorraine was restored to France, not only because it had been taken from France in 1871, but also because the inhabitants desired it. Similarly, Poland was restored to its position as an independent state. This action not only righted the injustice done to the country by irresponsible despots of the eighteenth century, Frederick the Great, Maria Theresa and Catherine II, but also recognized the existence of a large Polish population which, against its will, had been partitioned among its neighbours. Poland was also guaranteed access to the Baltic Sea through the port of Danzig. Danzig itself, though German in population, became a free city, that is, independent of Germany and self-governing.

At the same time a series of independent states was set up on the east side of the Baltic, namely, Finland, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. South of Poland new or enlarged national states were set up as follows: Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria and Albania. Lastly, the territory of Greece was increased, not alone because Greece had given indispensable aid in the war, but still more because the inhabitants of the annexed territory were prevailingly Greek. Italy received a block of territory at the head of the Adriatic of which the inhabitants were mainly Italians, former subjects of Austria. All of these new republics and kingdoms were created or increased out of territory which before the war had belonged to Germany, Russia, Austria-Hungary or Turkey.

Mandated Territories

It was a very special problem for the Peace Conference to decide what should be done with the German colonies and the countries under Turkish rule. Before the Armistice the Allies had made a public declaration that they desired no annexations. Nevertheless, they believed it impossible to return the countries in question to the government or vengeance of their former owners. To meet this difficulty a

novel plan was adopted. For example, Palestine was turned over to the British as "a trustee of civilization". The British derive no profit from this arrangement and are answerable to the League of Nations for their management. The races

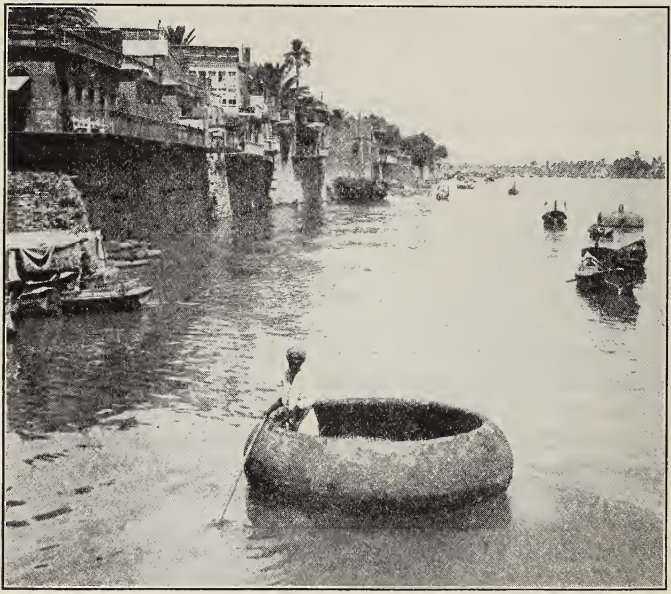


Photo from Ewing Galloway

THE RIVER TIGRIS AT BAGDAD

Bagdad was once the capital of the Moslem caliphs and one of the world's most famous cities. It is now the capital of the new Arab kingdom of Iraq.

of Palestine did not become British subjects and cannot be enlisted in armies or trained for military purposes. On the same terms Syria, of which Damascus is the chief city, was assigned to France. Iraq, the portion of Turkish territory of which Bagdad is the chief city, was assigned to Great

Britain. In law this sort of trusteeship is called a Mandate.

The same procedure was adopted in dealing with the German African colonies. Togo and the Cameroons on the west coast were assigned to France and Great Britain. The mandate for German South-West Africa was assigned to the Union of South Africa. Great Britain accepted the mandate for Taniqua, and Belgium for Rowanda, which before the war were German East Africa. Samoa fell to the



Dates Being Carried to Packing Station, Basra

charge of New Zealand, New Guinea to Australia and small islands north of the equator in the Pacific to Japan.

In all mandated territories the natives are guaranteed freedom of conscience and religion except so far as this may interefere with public order or public morals. The traffic in firearms and liquor is restricted and the slave-trade forbidden. A veto was placed upon the use of "trade spirits", which means cheap alcoholic drinks used for purposes of trade with ignorant races. This refers especially to rum, the use of which had been the shame of the white man since the beginnings of colonial trade.

Reparations

All the arrangements thus far were fairly consistent with President Wilson's fourteen points, but the same cannot be said of the question of financial settlement. To demand of Germany complete payment of the whole cost of the war, along with gifts of money to generals and statesmen of the victorious countries, was naturally out of the question. In 1871, of course, Germany had her own way because the other powers had not given help to France, but in 1919 there were thirty-two nations sitting at the Peace Conference. The pressure of this influence, re-enforced by the concentrated attention of the whole world, prevented France from obtaining all that she desired. Even so, Germany was compelled to assume responsibility for all damages by land and sea, and to promise to pay by annual instalments the almost inconceivable sum of $33,000,000,000 in gold.

These payments for damages are called Reparations; the amount was beyond Germany's ability to pay. The Allies, in turn, were owing gigantic sums to the United States, which they had borrowed to finish the war. These are known as War Debts. They were also beyond the ability of the Allies to pay. Even after the capital sums were drastically reduced the remainders of both Reparations and War Debts were beyond the power of the debtors to pay. These debts have hung like millstones around the necks of the nations.

The International Labour Organization

According to Article 23 of the Covenant, members of the League take a pledge that they "will endeavour to secure and maintain fair and humane conditions of labour for men, women and children, both in their own countries and in all countries to which their commercial industrial relations extend, and for that purpose will establish and maintain the necessary international organizations."

It was this that brought into existence the International Labour Organization, of which the aim is to secure "the well-being, physical, moral and intellectual, of all wage-earners." Already since 1900 there had been an International Association for Labour Legislation, which had sought to get laws passed abolishing night work for women and children and restricting the working day to ten hours. It lacked, however, the moral and financial support of governments. This defect was remedied by the new Labour Organization, which is supported by the member nations of the League; they advance as much as $1,500,000 per year for its maintenance. This fund is provided for annually in the budget of the League's expenses.

The Labour Organization is not, however, a part of the League. It is a self-governing body with its own Library and Office Building. Even nations outside the League may send delegates to its conferences; for example, Germany was a member from the first, 1919, but was not admitted to the League of Nations until 1926. Each member nation is entitled to send four delegates; two of these represent the government and the other two represent employers and employees. Delegates assemble at least once a year in a General Conference, but at all times there is a Director in Geneva with a staff of more than 350 assistants in charge of the International Labour Office. This is a clearing house for information about labour conditions in all parts of the world. It publishes several periodicals, such as *Industrial and Labour Information,* the *International Labour Review,* the *Industrial Safety Survey,* and a *Monthly Record of Migration.*

The chief function of the Labour Organization is, of course, to make researches and recommendations. Like the League itself, it has no power to force its will upon nations. One of its advantages over private organizations of workers, however, is this, that its delegates have constant contact with their home governments, and can urge them to adopt

proposed reforms. Many conventions, or agreements, in the interests of labour have been drafted by it, which the home governments have been asked to ratify. For example, a recent convention, designed to protect the health and welfare of seamen, has been ratified by thirty nations. One of the first successes of the Organization was to secure the adoption of the 8-hour day in Belgium in 1921. Its advice was also adopted in framing the labour laws of the New Republics formed by the Peace Treaties, such as Czechoslovakia and Poland. The Fascists in Italy have also been guided by it. Many complaints have been reported to it and investigated. In sifting these the Organization is not partizan; it consults the interests of governments, employers and employees. It is a conciliatory body, working for world peace. Adverse criticisms have arisen chiefly with the communists, especially the Third International (page 647).

The Permanent Court of International Justice (World Court)

Article 14 of the Covenant called for the formation of a Permanent Court of International Justice. This pledge was carried out in the first year of the League's existence, December, 1920. The court was not located at Geneva because a handsome building was already available at The Hague, where the Permanent Court of Arbitration had been in existence since 1907. It now consists of a bench of fifteen judges (increased from eleven in 1930), elected by both the Assembly and the Council of the League, and they serve for nine years. All are required to be of the highest moral character and of outstanding reputation for knowledge of law; not more than one may be chosen from a given nation. They meet annually in June.

No nation is bound, it ought to be stated, to submit its controversies to the Court, but its services are always available to nations that agree to abide by its decisions. Its foundation was a moral victory, and its existence is a noble

appeal to all governments to submit to the peaceful settlement of their quarrels. By the year 1931 the Court had delivered sixteen judgments, all of which were accepted as

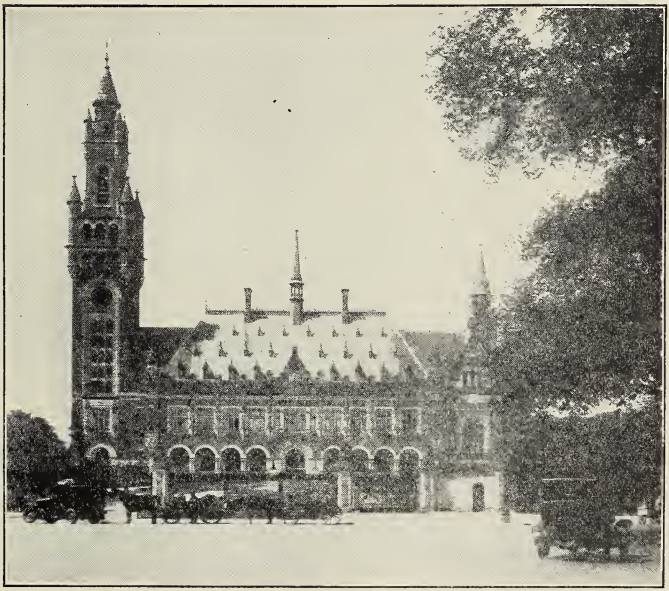


Photo from Ewing Galloway

THE PEACE PALACE AT THE HAGUE

This building is the seat of the Permanent Court of Arbitration and of the Permanent Court of International Justice. The latter is popularly called the World Court.

satisfactory. It had also delivered twenty advisory opinions. For example, in 1931, it decided that the proposed Customs Union between Austria and Germany was contrary to the Peace Treaties. This verdict was accepted as final.

PART VII

THE WORLD SINCE THE GREAT WAR

CHAPTER LIX

THE MAIN DRIFTS

Stages of the Industrial Revolution—World Trade Reaches its Limits—Three Drifts in Government—American Pattern of Anglo-Saxon Democracy—English Parliamentary Government—French Nationalism—Foreign Interpretations of French Nationalism—Socialism—Divisions of the Socialists—Aggravation of Nationalism after the War—Paralysis of Commerce—Russian and Italian Experiments—Rivalry of Socialism and Parliamentary Democracy—New Developments Since the War—End of Landlordism in Europe.

GROUPING OF THE NATIONS.—Resemblance of France and Japan—Anglo-Saxon Countries and India—Soviet Russia—The Republic of Turkey—Italy Stands Alone—New Republics in Europe—China a New Republic—Africa Ruled from Europe—Asia Described Under Various Headings—Latin-American Republics Stand Apart.

In order to understand the drift of events since the War it is necessary to pick up the threads of unity in the history of the nineteenth century.

So far as industry, trade and commerce are concerned it is sufficient to recall to mind the Industrial Revolution, that is, the shift from small-shop or cottage industries to the factory system with power-driven machinery. This began in England and spread to the continent through France and Germany. In the latter country the exclusion of intellectual people from political life fostered great advances in industrial chemistry, for example, in the dye industry. In the United States the Industrial Revolution experienced a local expansion which created farm machinery. It also experienced a secondary growth which led to the mass production of standardized products, such as alarm clocks, shoes and motor-cars.

The prodigious increase of manufactured articles called for wider markets and more bountiful sources of raw materials, such as woods, rubber and minerals. This in turn gave a new importance to oversea colonies, and resulted in the partition of Africa and the islands of the Pacific, and it

threatened the partition of China. This expansion of trade was so rapid that by the time of the War the limits had been reached. Trade continued to increase for ten years following the War, but this was only a last spurt. The world-wide depression of 1929 signalized the limits of growth, and world trade found itself in the plight of a plant that is "pot-bound"; it had no more room to expand. The age of free-trade seems to be definitely terminated. Present indications seem to point to the necessity of steering trade into prescribed channels. The Imperial Economic Conference held at Ottawa in July and August, 1932, effected a partial arrangement of this kind for the British Empire. Similar plans have been proposed for the Danubian countries in Europe.

So far as government was concerned, there were three main drifts in the nineteenth century. It has been pointed out how the American variety of Anglo-Saxon democratic government was extended to all Latin-American countries, and how it also influenced the Dominion of Canada. Through Canada it also affected Australia and South Africa, which have governments of the federal type, but its influence in Europe was less.

In Europe the foremost model was the original English system of parliamentary government, which was no less copied on the continent than was the American pattern in Latin-America. In several countries, such as Germany and Austria, it was adopted as a sort of dummy system, serving the purpose of making autocracy less intolerable. In most countries it was only moderately successful because there were too many political parties. In all these countries it was necessary to frame a written Constitution, after the fashion of the United States and France, because the system was borrowed and not created. In Great Britain itself there is no written Constitution, because parliamentary government was there a native growth and not an invention or an importation.

A second influence in nineteenth century Europe was French nationalism. The life of Paris, with its arts, fashions and gaiety, steadily exercised a spell over the other continental peoples. It was a constant advertisement for France. All these peoples had their colonies of tourists at Paris, who carried home with them the story of its charms. They conceived the desire that their own capitals should resemble it, with handsome avenues, attractive shops, and an Opera House. This imitation extended itself to the French spirit and to the French polity. Men envisaged a country self-contained and self-satisfied, in which all the citizens were imbued with similar ideals, without differences of race or of language.

This fascinating nationalism of France was a genuine creation of the French race, evolved through distressing and costly revolutions. It was native to the country just as parliamentary government was native to England. The French did not need to raise the cry of "France for the French", because this happy condition had been realized through the logic of events. Other races, however, less fortunately situated, looked to France with longing eyes, and began to raise the cries of "Serbia for the Serbs", "Rumania for the Rumanians", "Poland for the Poles", and even "Turkey for the Turks". To-day the aspiration of the Japanese is "Asia for the Asiatics". To a certain degree these hopes are pardonable and justifiable, but it must be remembered that no country can be absolutely self-contained and self-sufficient, not even the United States.

British and American ideals, however, and French nationalism, all of which had been realized in practice, met with a rival in socialistic republics, which existed only in the minds of men. After floating about in various indefinite forms they suddenly took shape in the writings of Karl Marx and his followers. Marx's famous *Communist Manifesto* of 1848 has already been mentioned. This pamphlet and his work on Capitalism became, and have remained, the

Bible of socialists and communists. These two classes were not generally regarded as different from each other until the Russian Revolutions of 1917. Since that event the communists have been universally branded as those who aim to overturn existing governments by conspiracy, violence and murder. The word socialist is used to denote one who is content to see the reforms he desires secured by peaceful means. In Great Britain several socialists have attained to posts of the highest responsibility. For example, Ramsay MacDonald, twice Prime Minister, and Philip Snowden, twice Chancellor of the Exchequer. Another outstanding socialist is George Bernard Shaw, perhaps the greatest living playwright. In France a recent Premier was a socialist, Aristide Briand. In North America, however, both in the United States and Canada, socialists are regarded with suspicion.

On the continent, however, it was Socialism more than anything else that hampered the working of parliamentary government. Its chief mischief was the increase of parties. All over the continent there was a conservative class, composed of princes, nobles, and landlords, who opposed change. There were Liberals who favoured progress by parliamentary enactment. This two-party division might have worked well if new parties had not been bred by Socialism. Moderate socialists arose, usually called Social Democrats, who wished to better conditions for the people by peaceful means. There were extreme socialists who would not balk at revolution by violence, and there were anarchists who wished to destroy governments altogether. To oppose these socialists the Roman Catholics often drew apart and created still other parties. In Germany they were until 1933 a party by themselves. In Austria many became, and are, Christian Socialists. Such was the chaos when the juggernaut of war arose to demand universal self-sacrifice for a five-year period, but all groups reappeared promptly, like hibernating animals, when the season of peace returned.

When the unsteady pyramid of militarism that was known as the Balance of Power toppled over in 1918, the rivalries of nations did not cease. Nationalism emerged as a many-headed serpent. There was an increased number of nations to practise rivalry. The German and Austrian Empires were divided into half a dozen republics, and surviving kingdoms were enlarged. To aggravate the bitterness, the doors of escape for emigrants, were suddenly closed. Throughout the nineteenth century the discontented had always been free to escape to the Americas. This refuge had often proved welcome, especially after the Revolutions of 1848. In 1917, however, the United States suddenly resolved to restrict immigration. Canada and South American countries followed suit with less stringent regulations, but the doors were at least partly closed. In 1930 Brazil closed them absolutely.

The operation of these changes has resulted in two calamitous coincidences. In the first place, just as the jealousies of nationalism have been unleashed, the races of Europe suddenly find themselves without an outlet for surplus population. Secondly, just as world trade suddenly finds its limits, these new nations choose to make trade still more difficult by raising prohibitive tariffs against one another's products. The result has been a serious paralysis of commerce in all parts of the globe. This still awaits a cure.

The clash of various political ideals, autocracy, parliamentary government and Socialism, has had various outcomes. Russia solved her problem by murdering or expelling her nobles and intellectuals, and by renouncing all other forms of government for Communism. Italy renounced Socialism, Communism, parliamentary government and democracy alike, and resorted to Fascism, the rule of an organized society headed by a benevolent autocrat. Germany followed suit in the spring of 1933. Fascism, by the way,

is the most original political idea evolved in post-war Europe.

The new Baltic Republics chose parliamentary government, but some of the New Republics of Central Europe have not been able to make a choice. Parliamentary democracy struggles for a chance to prove its worth, but Socialism of many forms makes two-party government impossible. The possible extension of Fascism still further complicates the problem. Democracy, Socialism and Fascism contend for the mastery, and in the offing may be noted the Royalists of Germany, Austria and Hungary, willing to bid "Welcome home" to a king or emperor.

Thus in Europe there is one new achievement since the War, the foundation of the first Socialistic Republic in history, that is, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and one new political development, the Fascist Government in Italy. Outside of the continent of Europe the outstanding novelty is the progressive development of the new British Empire, the British Commonwealth of Nations. The rest of the world displays little change.

There is one nineteenth century influence of American origin that is sweeping Europe since the War. The nineteenth century was the era of free land. The United States continued to hold out this offer to all the races of Europe, and Canada and Argentina extended the same lure. It spelled the doom of landlordism in the old lands, but the landlords were strongly entrenched in possession, and it was not until the War, the subsequent revolutions, and the Treaty of Versailles dissolved the old Empires of Russia, Germany and Austria that the peasants found the long desired boon within their reach. To-day the American and Canadian system of one-family farms is steadily spreading in the New Republics and even in certain kingdoms. This is a belated victory over medieval feudalism. A lingering vestige of the Middle Ages is being finally obliterated.

Grouping of the Nations

In treating of the various countries it must be observed that geographical groupings according to continents is no longer of general significance. For example, Japan resembles no country in Asia to-day so much as it resembles France. These two are the most perfect examples of national states now existing. The home territory of each embraces a single race and both are self-confident and vigorous. They will therefore be treated side by side. Both of them, again, react in the same way as Anglo-Saxon countries to the world movements of Socialism and Communism. For this reason they are placed in juxtaposition to the Anglo-Saxon countries.

The Anglo-Saxon countries, comprising the British Commonwealth of Nations and the United States, form a natural, but not a political, unit. All of them possess stable governments of a similar kind. All of them renounce Socialism as such, and denounce Communism, but all of them are uniformly eager to set high standards of living for all classes. India will be classed with this group because it has received definite promises of Dominion Status as soon as the privilege is deserved.

Soviet Russia stands apart from all other States as the first genuine experiment in communistic government. The Republic of Turkey is placed in juxtaposition with it for convenience and for other reasons to be pointed out.

Italy is in a class by itself because its Fascist government is the most original experiment of modern times. Communistic governments have been talked of for almost a century, but government by an organized society within a state is a genuine invention of post-war politics.

In Europe an outstanding group consists of the New Republics or Succession States, created out of the wrecks of the Russian, German and Austrian Empires. These, too, are trying a great experiment, though neither new nor

original in its kind. Among them the excesses of nationalism are displayed at their worst. Of the continuing kingdoms of Europe, such as Holland, Sweden and Norway, little needs to be said.

China falls in the class of New Republics, although its revolution took place just before the War (1911). It resembles the other New Republics, however, because its government is still unsettled. It is attempting to Europeanize itself in every possible respect, though with limited success.

Africa may be dismissed briefly because it has been partitioned among the nations of Europe and the Union of South Africa. Only Abyssinia is independent. Egypt is a kingdom but Great Britain stands on guard. Morocco has a sultan at its head, but he receives his orders from France. Liberia is a Negro Republic, supervised by the United States and the League of Nations.

Asia calls for only brief description because little is left when Soviet Russia, Turkey, the European mandates, India, China and Japan have been treated separately or in other connections.

The Latin-American Republics are joined with the United States in the somewhat loose Pan-American Union, but the United States have closer affinities with the Anglo-Saxon countries. From Mexico southward there has been little change since the War.

CHAPTER LX

ANGLO-SAXON COUNTRIES AND INDIA

Resistance to Socialism and Communism—Similarity of the United States and Canada—Adherence to the Two-Party System—Restriction of Immigration Since the War.

THE UNITED STATES.—Imperialism of the Republican Party—Succeeds to Great Britain's Place in World Politics.

GREAT BRITAIN.— British Labour Party Opposed to Communism Tendency towards Socialistic Legislation: the Dole—Temporary Growth of the Labour Party—Great Britain's Future—The National Coalition Government—Abandonment of Free Trade.

THE SELF-GOVERNING DOMINIONS.—Increase of Co-operation—Canada the Keystone of the Anglo-Saxon World—Socialistic Legislation Without Socialism—Labour Parties Strong in Australia and New Zealand—The Union of South Africa a Daring Experiment.

THE IRISH FREE STATE.—Function of Ireland in World History—Huge Emigration to the United States—Solution of the Irish Problem.

DOMINION STATUS.—New Title of the King—Definition of Dominion Status—Restricted Functions of Governors-General—New Method of Selecting Governors-General—Statute of Westminster—Increased Importance of Imperial Conferences—The Irish Free State Abolishes the Oath.

INDIA.—The Dominions Influence India—Mahatma Gandhi—Great Britain's Benevolent Imperialism—Excellence of British Rule—Influence of the United States after 1898—World Criticism of British Rule—Modification of British Policy—The Government of India Act—The Promise of Dominion Status—Disunity in India.

The Anglo-Saxon countries stand apart from other countries, along with France and Japan, in remaining free from revolutions or other serious political disturbances since the War. All of them are capitalistic, and display a vigorous resistance to Socialism, and are intolerant of Communism. In this respect the United States and Canada lead all the rest. This is perhaps due to the fact that the whole North American continent has been populated through the continuous offer of free land, which makes an absurdity of state-ownership. Of what use is it to ask the governments to seize all private land when the same governments have been eager to give it away? North America stands at the opposite pole from Russia. Another cause of the opposition

to Socialism and Communism is the fact that most socialistic leaders have been foreigners, and often Marxian socialists, eager for the use of physical force, and Anglo-Saxons will neither accept leadership from foreigners nor compromise with violence.

The resistance of the United States to Socialism is demonstrated by the fact that socialist candidates for the presidency do well to poll one per cent. of the votes, and in several States they cannot hope to be honoured by a single ballot. Even in the depression year of 1932 the socialist candidate polled less than two per cent. of the popular vote. There are at present no socialist members of Congress, although there was a lone Representative in the last House but one. It must also be mentioned that the United States Government, until 1933, refused to recognize Soviet Russia, although the latter was Americanizing its industrial system and in 1930 spent more than $100,000,000 for American machinery. The people of Canada are even more unsocialistic in temper, surpassing in this respect all other Anglo-Saxon units. It is difficult even for a labour candidate to be elected to the Dominion Parliament. In 1930 the newly elected Premier, the Hon. R. B. Bennett, renounced officially all trade or traffic with Soviet Russia. At the Imperial Economic Conference of the summer of 1932 he made it a condition of closer trade relations with the mother-country that the dumping of Soviet wheat, lumber and other products should be stopped.

Another feature common to Anglo-Saxon countries, and this is especially true of Canada and the United States, is the tendency to adhere to a two-party system. In North America all third parties rapidly dwindle. Common to all Anglo-Saxon countries outside of Great Britain and Ireland is also the policy of restricting immigration since the War. This means that they no longer afford an outlet for the surplus population of Europe, as was the case from the Napoleonic Wars down to 1914. The number of alien im-

migrants entering the United States in 1914 was upwards of 1,200,000; in 1932 the number had shrunk to 35,576. The restrictions are less stringent in Canada, but the decrease is significant, from 384,000 in 1914 to 25,752 in 1932. There is a parallel decrease in South American countries. This means that Europe has millions of mouths to feed which under pre-war conditions would have found food elsewhere.

The United States

During the period from 1921 to 1932 the United States elected Republican Presidents. These were more or less out of sympathy with the idealism of the Democratic war president, Woodrow Wilson. It was logical for the Republican Senate to decline to sanction the Treaty of Versailles or to enter the League of Nations and the World Court. The Republicans shun European entanglements, a danger much feared ever since the time of George Washington. This amounts to a policy of isolation, but it does not mean that the government will show a weak hand in foreign affairs. On the contrary, the Republicans have been the imperialistic party. It was they who, after 1898, boldly undertook to police the Caribbean Sea and demanded the right to build and control the Panama Canal. It is they who have been demanding from Great Britain a recognition of equality on the seas, and they put pressure upon Japan at the Washington Arms Conference to withdraw from Chinese territory and promise to respect the sovereignty of that country.

The decision of the United States to remain outside the League of Nations placed the Government in the same position with reference to the nations of Europe that Great Britain occupied in the nineteenth century. Great Britain stood aloof from Europe and so held the key to the Balance of Power. In the Great War her weight combined with that of the self-governing Dominions was not quite sufficient to

secure victory for the Allies. It was necessary for the United States to bring help at the last. After the War, Great Britain, by joining the League of Nations, linked herself up with the affairs of the continent. The United States, by virtue of remaining outside, stepped into the place vacated by the mother-country. The Republican Party was acutely conscious of the strength of this position. For example, it placed itself in the position of an arbiter in European affairs by refusing to cancel the War Debts so long as the continental countries continued to spend huge sums on armaments. It used its position as a creditor nation to urge upon Great Britain, France and Italy the need of drastic reductions in the size of navies.

Twelve years of rule by the Republican Party came to an end in 1932 with the election by huge majorities of a Democratic Congress and a Democratic President, Franklin D. Roosevelt. The outgoing President, Herbert Hoover, had been elected as a prosperity candidate, when good times were expected to last for ever. Fate dealt very cruelly with him. Adverse conditions set in before the end of the first year of his term, and were falsely judged to be temporary. When the depression continued and the conviction slowly gained ground that the nation's troubles were fundamental, it was too late to devise remedies. The President's plans had all been drawn for a greater prosperity, not for adversity.

President Roosevelt was inaugurated in March, 1933, when commodity prices were lowest, unemployment at its worst, and the banks on the verge of collapse; they were closed immediately. It was his good fortune, however, to have had ample time to study out a comprehensive programme of recovery, which he called the New Deal. Congress was at once convened in special session and sat for one hundred days.

During this period it was plied with messages from the

President asking for authority to deal with one problem after another. No sooner was one bill ready for the vote than a new message would arrive from the White House outlining the substance of another measure. In the end a series of extraordinary powers were conferred upon him, including the control of banks, railroads and industries. He was given leave to fix minimum wage-scales and maximum working hours, and to abolish child labour, which he did. Five hundred million dollars were placed at his disposal for direct relief of unemployment, and thirty-three hundred million for public works to create employment.

During the election campaign the curiosity of the public had been pricked by the mystery of the New Deal. As its details became known through one measure after another the imagination of the public was captured by the President's audacity. His call for a quarter of a million men to work at a dollar per day in the nation's parks and forests was met with an immediate response; within four months 300,000 had been put to work. The President had been given authority to inflate the currency by issuing large quantities of new paper money or by diminishing the gold value of the dollar. The prices of commodities began to rise slightly without this being done. Many employers increased wages without waiting for government regulation. All industries were required to draw up and sign "codes" of fair practice for the regulation of business. These were widely advertised under the name of Nira, the National Industrial Recovery Act. A nation-wide campaign was set on foot to secure the co-operation of every citizen.

Socialist critics of the New Deal styled it a form of State Socialism; they said that Capitalism had been condemned and must submit to government control. People with Fascist sympathies styled the New Deal a form of Fascism. This was utterly wrong, because the essence of Fascism is control of the government by an organized society within

the State. Mr. Roosevelt needed no such aid. He counted upon the support of all classes, capitalists, consumers and workers alike. He said that it was not good for a nation that some classes should be prosperous and others poor. He admitted an element of "collectivism" in his programme. For example, high wages would be fair to all manufacturers if all manufacturers paid them. Higher prices for food and clothing would be fair to all if all workers earned more. During the summer of 1933 he appealed to all employers to increase wages as fast as prices of living increased. He declared that recovery was possible if only all would work together.

In order to re-enforce the effect of the codes of fair practice upon wages and employment, the President began late in October, 1933, to purchase newly mined gold at prices well above the par value, which is $20.637 per ounce; at the end of the year the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC) was offering $34.06 per ounce. On December 21 it was announced that newly mined silver would be purchased to the amount of 24,000,000 ounces during the ensuing year, one half of the same to be coined, the rest held in the government vaults. The price set was 64½ cents per ounce, the market price being at the time 43 cents. One aim of these measures was to diminish the value of the American dollar and increase the purchasing power of foreign nations.

Equally outstanding in the events of the autumn was the recognition of the Soviet Government by the United States on November 17. This followed a visit of Maxim Litvinoff, Russian Commissar for Foreign Affairs, who was sent in response to an invitation extended by President Roosevelt. This restoration of friendly relations after an estrangement of sixteen years was widely approved as an increase of good-will among nations; it was also expected to promote the recovery of trade. It was less pleasing to Japan, which is threatening Russia's eastern Siberian borders.

Great Britain

Great Britain shares with all Anglo-Saxon countries a vigorous resistance to pure Socialism and still more to Communism. In 1925 the Labour Party passed by a majority of over two million votes a resolution to this effect: "No member of the Communist Party shall be eligible to become a member of any affiliated local Labour Party or be entitled to remain a member." Even in its political programmes, although definitely hostile to the capitalistic system, the Labour Party avoids the word Socialism. This shows that the British people are very conservative at heart.

At the same time there has been a steady tendency towards socialistic legislation. For example, the so-called dole was founded as a genuine insurance against unemployment, to which employees, employers and the government contributed fixed shares, but the law has been so modified that workless people who never contributed to it share its benefits without limit of time. In 1928 the right to vote was extended to all women over 21 years of age on the same terms as men. In 1929 a woman became a member of the cabinet for the first time.

Another outstanding feature of post-war British politics was a temporary growth of the Labour Party. In 1922 it was strong enough to become for the first time His Majesty's Opposition. In 1924, by virtue of an alliance with the Liberals, it was in office for ten months with Ramsay MacDonald as Prime Minister. In 1929, after the defeat of the Conservatives, it came into office again. The world-wide business depression which quickly followed made it impossible for the Labour Party to carry on, and a National Coalition Government was formed with Ramsay MacDonald as Prime Minister.

This may be compared to a war cabinet, and exemplifies the readiness of British statesmen to obliterate party lines in time of crisis. In spite of drastic increases in taxation,

already severe beyond all example, the British people in 1932 prepaid their income taxes and sold gold jewelry to the value of millions of dollars to remedy the scarcity of precious metal. They also submitted in 1932 to a reduction of interest from 5% to 3½% on war loans amounting to two billion pounds.

Great Britain signalized its recognition of the fact that world trade has expanded to its limits by adopting protective duties after almost a century of free-trade. The new plan of creating special channels of trade was inaugurated by the Imperial Economic Conference of 1932, which Premier Bennett of Canada called the First Imperial Tariff Conference. In 1933 Great Britain arranged a trade pact with Norway and Sweden by which an assured market was opened up for British coal in exchange for certain kinds of steel.

Great Britain's Future

The question has often been raised in recent years, what the future holds in store for Great Britain. A gloomy answer to this is often vouchsafed even by residents of the British Isles. It is undeniable that the Great War cost her a terrible price in men, money and prestige. The loss in manhood approached three millions, and a whole generation of young men was wiped out, who, in the ordinary course of events, would now be foremost in the industrial, professional and official life of the nation. The burden of the national debt was multiplied by fifteen. A large part of the foreign trade during the War was lost to Japan in India and other parts of Asia and to the United States in the Americas. The market for British coal was diminished by the increased use of oil for engine fuel, and England has no oil. The market for coal was further diminished by the rapid development of hydro-electric power, in Italy for example, which lacks coal. What this decrease meant to British exports may be gleaned from the fact that coal

before the War amounted to four-fifths of the whole in bulk and one-tenth in value. At the same time the total volume of exports remained at least one-fourth less than before the War. The possession of a vast empire was of no advantage in this regard, because its most productive parts are self-governing and make their own trade regulations.

It would be a grave mistake, however, to infer that Great Britain is near the end of her career. She still possesses the world's largest and safest banks. There is more wealth in the United States, but there are many parts of the world to which money can be remitted only through London banks; their connections are the most complete and wide-spread that ever existed. Money is sent to them for safe-keeping from customers in many countries. India is a great reservoir of gold and silver upon which London can draw; Indian gold flowed to England in 1932 at the rate of a million pounds a week.

If Britain's export trade has fallen since the War, her import trade has increased. This means that the standard of living has risen rather than fallen, at least for a numerous class. It means that the country has sources of income that do not appear in the balance sheets of exports and imports. This invisible income is derived from interest on moneys loaned in foreign lands, and from profits made in carrying the goods of other nations from port to port in British ships. There is also a considerable volume of traffic that passes through English ports but does not originate there. For example, Spain has very little direct trade with Canada; Spanish goods are forwarded through London agents. Britain still has the widest trade connections of any country in the world.

Other factors must be considered when forecasting Britain's destiny, for example, the character of the British people. The fertility of the breed has not been exhausted by its generous gifts to mankind in the realms of government, invention and commerce. There never was a larger

number of outstanding scientists in Britain than at the present time, individuals being less famous because of the larger number. The temper of the people in general is still cool and constant. In 1926 the country endured 29 weeks of a General Strike, which might, if completely successful, have starved the population as effectually as a hostile blockade by sea. Only six people out of one hundred in Britain work on the land; the food must be conveyed by safe seaways. Nevertheless, the peril in 1926 created no panic; there was no civil war; there was little class hatred. This ability of Britishers to differ and to struggle with one another without loss of self-control is a priceless national asset. Qualities of heart, in the long run, are of more avail to a race than intellectual brilliancy. One quality that can always be counted upon among Britishers is tenacity. The race possesses prodigious recuperative power. Sure evidence of returning confidence and trade recovery was discernible in the autumn of 1933.

The Self-Governing Dominions

In the story of the British Commonwealth of Nations since the War the outstanding feature has been the steady increase of understanding and co-operation between the overseas dominions and the mother-country. It has been mentioned already how Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Newfoundland rallied to the side of the parent state during the Great War, and how the first four named were accorded places at the Peace Conference. Their admission as signatories of the Peace Treaty was their first recognition as independent nations. Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, and also India, are members of the League of Nations.

Among the Dominions the foremost place belongs to Canada, not only because it is the oldest and the largest, but far more because it is the keystone of the Anglo-Saxon world. It is not only a member of the British Common-

wealth of Nations but also joint possessor of North America with the United States. Its loyalty to the King is matched by its cordial friendship with the great Republic. To commit a breach of friendship with its neighbour is almost as unthinkable as to be guilty of disloyalty to its sovereign. It was this dual position that enabled Premier Meighen in 1921 to object to the renewal of the alliance of Great Britain with Japan, in which he was supported by



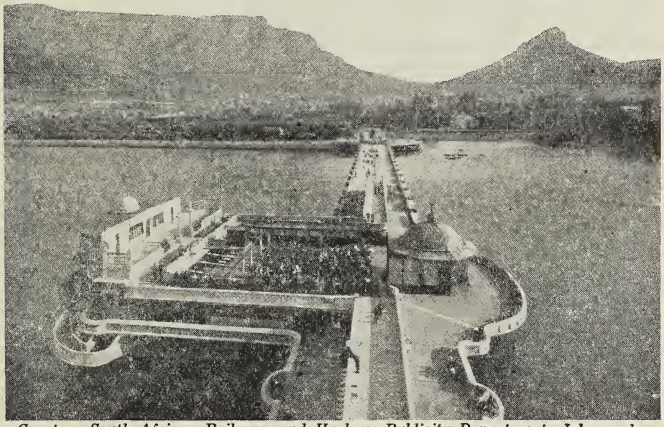
Courtesy Canadian Pacific Railway

View of Toronto's New Skyline

Australia. In place of it a new treaty was made with Japan, to which the United States became a party (page 780). It has already been mentioned that Premier Bennett of Canada demanded of Great Britain the exclusion of the products of communized labour from Russia (page 679). Thus the Dominions are actually exercising a substantial measure of control over the domestic and foreign policies of the mother-land.

In its own affairs Canada never strays far from the old two-party system. The Dominion Government has taken over the largest railroad system in the world from its bankrupt owners, but this is not Socialism; the Canadian Pacific Railway, a vast capitalistic system, enjoys the greatest

esteem. The Province of Ontario owns the largest system of hydro-electric power in the world, but this is not Socialism; it was the work of Sir Adam Beck, who belongs rather in the class of empire-builders. The conservatism of Canadians is further illustrated by the fact that Trades-Unions have played a negligible part in their political life. There



Courtesy South African Railways and Harbour Publicity Department, Johannesburg
TABLE MOUNTAIN AND PIER, CAPE TOWN, S. AFRICA

is no strong Labour Party, though the small one that exists has proved to be very useful.

Labour Parties are not negligible in Australia and New Zealand, both of which resemble the mother-country more than Canada does. They have experimented with Labour Governments since the War. They have been more influenced by labour leaders from England, whose severe training in British industrial disputes has been applied to local politics. In this regard Canada's attitude has been different. Imported leaders find no favour. In all British countries

alike, however, the safety, health, and old age of working men are better and better provided for as the years go by. Socialistic ends are attained without Socialism.

The gift of self-government to the Union of South Africa in 1910 was one of the most daring adventures ever taken by the British Government, and has been amply justified by the results. South Africa resembles Australia, New Zealand and the mother-country more than other parts of the British Commonwealth because the Labour Party has been strong, though Socialism, as such, plays little part. The Union owns both railways and steam-ships, and operates them with profit. The large population of blacks, 4,500,000 alongside of 1,500,000 whites, creates local problems. As in all Anglo-Saxon countries, the immigration of Asiatics is restricted.

The Irish Free State

In the interval since the War a possible remedy for the age-old troubles of Ireland has been found in the establishment of the Irish Free State. In World History the function of Ireland is to stand forever as an example of the crime of forced colonization. Untouched in the sixteenth century by the Protestant Revolutions, the population remained unalterably Roman Catholic. The Tudors, the Stuarts and Oliver Cromwell cruelly drove a part of the people from their homes and settled Protestant Scotch and English landlords in the northern district. Thus all human relationships were embittered by religious and political differences combined. In 1801 the island was joined with Great Britain by an Act of Union, but the country could never be united to England as Wales and Scotland had been.

The terrible famine that began in 1846 with the failure of the potato crop was also an event deserving of mention in World History. It occasioned such a volume of emigration to America as to endanger the cordial relations of Great Britain and the United States for a long time. In 1866, fol-

lowing the Civil War, a group of hostile Irishmen in the United States was responsible for the Fenian Raids into Canada. From Ireland itself the stream of emigration continued to flow long after the famine ceased. This exodus has been unequalled elsewhere. The whole population today is only one half of what it was in 1845.

The solution now being tried out for the wrongs of Ireland has not been the invention of any British statesman, but was afforded by the development of self-government in the overseas Dominions, and especially Canada. In 1922 the island was divided into two parts, the Irish Free State and Northern Ireland. The former has its capital in Dublin and comprises upwards of two-thirds of the population; the latter has its capital in Belfast and comprises less than a third of the population. As a result of these changes it is no longer correct to speak of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The proper title of the King is now "by the Grace of God of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India." The Irish Free State became a member of the League of Nations in 1923. It enjoys the privilege of being represented by ministers in foreign capitals. It may engage in a tariff war with Great Britain and was so doing in 1933.

Dominion Status

The establishment of the Irish Free State calls sharp attention to the changing nature of the term British Empire. In this connection the word Empire has no such meaning as it bears in such phrases as the Persian Empire or the Roman Empire, or in pre-war times, the Russian Empire or the German Empire. The king is no autocrat and issues no orders. He can appeal to the self-governing Dominions, but he cannot command them. The Dominions are no longer colonies, and this fact was recognized when a new Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs was created in

July, 1925. The new Dominions Office took over from the old Colonial Office all matters concerning the self-governing Dominions, the self-governing colony of Southern Rhodesia, and certain territories in Africa. The Colonial Office was left in charge of crown colonies, protectorates, and mandated territories, such as British Honduras, British Guiana, Fiji Colony, Ceylon, British Malaya, Kenya Colony and Protectorate, Uganda Protectorate, Nigeria, Gold Coast, Sierra Leone Colony and many others.

The establishment of the Irish Free State also invited a closer definition of the word Dominion, which came into use only in 1867, with the formation of the Dominion of Canada, but gradually acquired meaning as the example set by a self-governing Canada was copied elsewhere. In 1926 this question was discussed at an Imperial Conference in London, and the Dominions were precisely defined as "autonomous Communities within the British Empire, in no way subordinate one to another in any respect of their domestic or foreign affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations." In other words it may be said that the Dominions are united to the mother-country by a "personal union," just as England and Scotland were united under James Stuart in 1603.

At the same Imperial Conference, as a logical inference from the admission of the equality of status, it was conceded in so many words that the Governor-General of a Dominion "is the representative of the Crown, holding in all essential respects the same position in the administration of public affairs in the Dominion as is held by His Majesty the King in Great Britain." It was also freely conceded that "it is the right of the Government of the Dominion to advise the Crown in all matters relating to its affairs." This means that the Governor-General of Canada, for example, is bound to do what the Canadian Prime Minister requests. If the Minister should ask for a general election,

then a writ for the same must be issued. As a consequence of this new ruling, the Governor-General of Canada was required to permit the transfer of his staff of secretaries, except for social purposes, to the Canadian Government, and thereafter it became unnecessary for him to know what messages might pass between Ottawa and the Dominions Office in London or foreign governments.

At a subsequent Imperial Conference held in November, 1930, a further concession was willingly made to the Dominions, namely, that thereafter the Governors-General of the Dominions should be appointed by the King after consultation with the Dominion ministers alone. This meant that the King's ministers in London surrendered all right to interfere or to tender advice unless requested to do so. The first appointment under this arrangement was made by the Commonwealth of Australia, which selected one of its own citizens to be Governor-General, Sir Isaac Isaacs, whose name was recommended by Premier Scullin.

At this time there still remained on the Statute Books of Great Britain a Colonial Laws Validity Act, dating from 1867, according to which the British Parliament reserved the right to annul any law passed by the legislature of a colony, if it contravened a British statute. This law had now become an offensive relic of colonial days through the development of the new self-governing Dominions, and at the Conference mentioned above a promise was given to repeal it. The new law is called the Statute of Westminster. It was passed in 1932.

This measure completes in all essential respects the recognition of the equality of the self-governing Dominions with the mother-country. It only remains for them to gradually assume the privileges of sovereign states, to send ministers to foreign courts, to provide for their own defence, and to take part in international parleys as occasion demands.

The repeated demands of the British Dominions for in-

creases of privilege since the War might be thought to be merely a phase of the intense nationalism now prevailing in all parts of the world, even in China. This may be partly true, but there is a gulf of difference between the members of the British Commonwealth and other centres of nationalism such as Germany, Poland and Italy. The more independent the latter countries become the more they tend to separate from one another. On the other hand, the more independent the British Dominions become the more are they disposed to co-operate with one another and with the mother-country. This was demonstrated by their prompt and spontaneous participation in the Great War, side by side with one another in the British expeditionary forces. It is demonstrated by the growing importance of Imperial Conferences, in which they voluntarily meet to discuss their common interests. All parts of the Empire were represented at the Imperial Economic Conference of 1932, which met in Ottawa.

On May 3, 1933, the Parliament of the Irish Free State passed a bill abolishing from the Constitution the oath of allegiance to the British Crown. This placed the Government in a rather absurd position, because the bill did not become law until signed by the Governor-General, who represents the British Crown. Again, the Anglo-Irish Treaty of 1921, by which the Irish Free State came into existence, states that its relationship to Great Britain shall be the same as that of the Dominion of Canada, and the Canadians have no thought of abolishing the oath. Under the Statute of Westminster, of course, the Dominions have complete freedom in making their laws, but the treaty of 1921 still binds the Irish Free State. Ireland is still British soil and all children born there of British parents are British subjects. The King of England is a party to their government so long as a Governor-General acts in his name. These facts cannot be altered by the refusal of Premier Eamonn de

Valera and his supporters to raise the right hand and take an oath in the name of the King.

India

It has already been mentioned that the rapid development of self-government in Canada and other British Dominions furnished both a motive and a model for the new Irish Free State. In recent years the same example has powerfully affected the situation in India, which, as an extremely ancient country and possessed of a rich heritage of art and literature, naturally feels aggrieved that its citizens should be considered unfit to take care of themselves. This specific example of inequality of treatment within the countries comprising the British Empire has combined with the wave of nationalism everywhere flowing strongly to create an unusually distressing and perplexing problem.

So far as the world at large is concerned the soul of the revolt against British rule is embodied in the fantastic person of Mahatma Gandhi. The word "Mahatma" is not a name but a popular title of honour, signifying "the great-souled". Gandhi knows western culture well, having been educated to the law in England, but he is hostile to all that it stands for. He would abolish the factory system and revert to the hand industries of spinning and weaving, which flourished in India before cheap British and Japanese cottons destroyed them. He would defeat the British by passive resistance, refusing to send children to school, to obey summonses to court, to pay taxes or to accept offices under the Government. In 1932 he was in gaol, spending his time in turning a spinning wheel or reading Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. He abjures all foods except goat's milk, fruit and vegetables. In September, 1932, he announced his intention of committing suicide by abstaining from food as a protest against the proposal of the British to give separate representation to the caste

of "untouchables". From carrying out this plan he was soon dissuaded. It may be mentioned, however, that suicide by starvation is highly esteemed by the sect of Jains, to which Gandhi's family belongs.

It must be recognized that the progressive changes in the British Commonwealth of nations have made the Indian situation more and more anomalous. The British East India Company was founded to make money, and made plenty of it. After the Indian Mutiny of 1857 the British Government took direct charge of affairs, and began to pay more attention to the welfare of the people. There was in those days no talk nor thought of such a thing as Dominion Status. The sentiment then flourishing was the pride of empire, which was employed to appeal to the Indian races when Queen Victoria assumed the title Empress of India in 1876. The country benefitted by this imperial benevolence through the construction of canals and dams, which greatly widened the area of agriculture, increased the food supply and diminished the scourge of famine. The native industries of spinning and weaving dwindled, but the new railways furnished an outlet for wheat from newly cultivated areas. Seventy per cent. of the people lived upon the land and worked it. It was to the advantage of Britain that this should be so.

This beneficent imperialism reached its highest point about the time of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee in 1897. The whole civilized world was then very complacent over the achievements of the century that was drawing to a close. The unctuous conception of "superior and inferior races" was still flourishing in the reticence of men's minds, and there was much unconcealed talk of "the white man's burden". Rudyard Kipling, the uncrowned poet-laureate of the older type of British imperialism, was enjoying an unprecedented vogue far beyond the limits of his mother-land.

Great Britain had then no compunctions about imperialism. The new British Empire, composed chiefly of self-

governing units, was only beginning to arise, and was not yet operative to a marked degree as a force in World History. India was a province of the old British Empire just as Africa had been a province of the beneficent Roman Empire. Its frontiers were garrisoned by incomparable British troops. It was divided into provinces, which were ruled by highly capable British governors, and its courts were presided over by incorruptible British judges. Imperialism had never showed to better advantage in all the world's history, but it was undisguised imperialism.

It was at this juncture that the destiny of nations enticed the Government of the United States to step out as a world power. Imperialism was inconsistent with its whole history and was also offensive to the majority of the people. Nevertheless, its statesmen were well aware that it would be highly advantageous, and had become well-nigh necessary, to have a base of operations in the Far East. Therefore the Philippine Islands were seized and held (1898). To justify this procedure before its own people and the world at large a policy of "benevolent assimilation" was enunciated, and a public declaration was made that the Filipinos would be educated for self-rule, with a view to bestowing the privilege of self-government upon them when they had been adequately prepared. This was a new kind of imperialism, which could not fail to react upon the professions of the British with regard to India and Egypt.

The Spanish-American War affected the fortunes of India in still another way. All wars possess tremendous advertising values, for good or ill, and the entrance of the Americans into the Philippines drew the attention of the whole world to the affairs of the Pacific as never before. It was followed by the Boxer Rebellion of 1900 in China and the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, which had the effect of focusing anew the regard of thoughtful people everywhere upon far-eastern affairs. The Boer War had already called attention to Africa, raising questions about the white

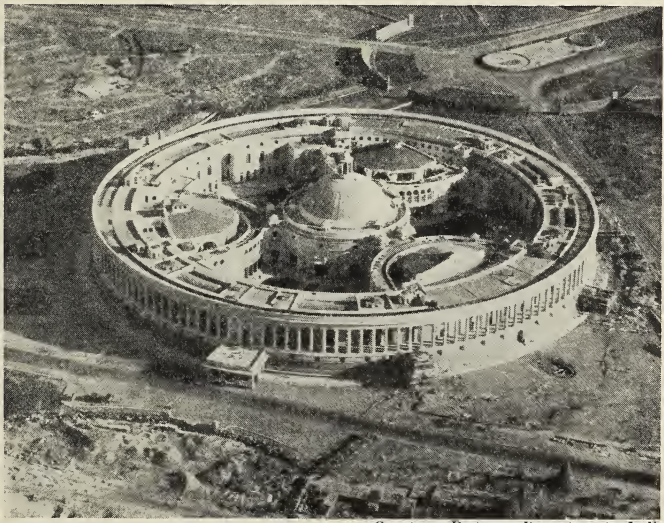
man's mission. The combined effect of these events was to create an unexampled market for books and articles about Africa and Asia. This secured a hearing for Indian agitators who talked of self-rule, and it subjected British policies in India to a world criticism from which it had been previously largely immune.

British statesmen, with their usual prudence and foresight, began to adapt their plans to the changing situation. In 1911 a visit of King George was so arranged as to appeal to the loyalty and imperial pride of all India. His coronation as Emperor was accompanied by a Durbar or royal reception, with gorgeous processions of troops and elephants, and it was announced that the capital, which had been at Calcutta, would be removed to its former seat in the historic city of Delhi. New buildings were planned for the government offices, which required nineteen years to build and were opened with oriental pomp in 1931 by the Viceroy, Lord Irwin.

The Great War and the Peace Conference made a fresh impact upon India. The outburst of nationalism in Europe, which followed immediately upon the gift of independence to small units of population, inflamed the ambitions of India's millions. British statesmen, realizing that the eyes of the world were upon them, and willing, as always, to make prudent concessions, adopted the Government of India Act, which permitted a measure of self-rule. A new form of government, comprised of an upper and a lower house, was established, in which the majority of the members are elected by ballot. This legislature can pass laws. For example, it enacted in 1929 that the minimum age for the marriage of girls should be raised to fourteen years. This was, of course, a direct concession to world criticism of the evils of child-marriage.

At least since 1919 the British government had made definite promises of genuine self-government, and these pledges were reaffirmed in 1929 by Lord Irwin, who said

that "the natural issue of India's constitutional progress is the attainment of a Dominion status". It is interesting from the standpoint of World History to note that such a pledge harks back to the promises made by the United States to the Filipinos and that the mention of Dominion status as a standard of self-government signalizes the contribution of



Courtesy Railway Department, India

AERIAL VIEW OF LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY, NEW DELHI

Canada to world politics. The whole Anglo-Saxon world is, to a certain degree, a unit.

In the meanwhile the Viceroy of India has the power to take such measures for the preservation of order as he chooses; he ordered the imprisonment of Mahatma Gandhi. This occurred after his return from a Round Table Conference in London, December, 1931, where he demanded complete independence for India. After two months' discussion nothing had been accomplished. The British Gov-

ernment continues to act with infinite patience as well as firmness. It is fully aware of its difficulties. Never in its long history have the people of India governed themselves. Before the British came they were always ruled by despots. Their 319 millions are divided vertically between Mohammedanism and other religions. Their 216 million Hindus are divided horizontally into some 2,400 castes, including 60 million untouchables. There are 45 races and 140 languages. There are almost 10 millions with a culture little above that of the Stone Age. There are 700 enormously wealthy and ambitious princes not unwilling to war upon one another. It will be a long time before the gift of complete self-government will be a safe experiment.

CHAPTER LXI

FRANCE

A Corrected Estimate of Frenchmen—The Sense of Injury—The Devastated Areas—The Sense of Insecurity.

RECONSTRUCTION.—The Expectation of Reparation Payments.

SECURITY.—Treaties of Defensive Alliance—The Locarno Pact—The Little Entente—The Rivalry with Italy.

FINANCE.—The Fall of the Franc—The Stabilization in 1928—Two Grievances of France.

ADVANTAGES OF FRANCE.—The Government Strong and Self-reliant—The Country is Self-contained—The Absence of Racial Minorities.

The Great War had the effect of changing profoundly the world's opinion of the French people. Throughout the nineteenth century an idea prevailed that Frenchmen were extremely excitable, capable of brilliant exploits under the leadership of a Napoleon, unduly exalted by the thirst for glory, and unduly cast down by reversals of fortune.

This error had its origin in the vogue of an unhappy belief in a "Celtic temperament". The belief itself is highly questionable, and in the case of the French absolutely mistaken. The French, it is true, are a mixed race, but the Celtic element in their blood is very minute. In spite of differences of language and of manners, they really display rather more resemblance to the British than to other peoples of Europe. The War revealed them as capable of the most stolid resistance against overwhelming odds during winter after winter when defeat seemed to come nearer and nearer. In that long and ugliest of all wars there was no room whatever for those brilliant Napoleonic manoeuvres with which the name of Frenchmen had been associated for a century in the popular fancy. There were no battles like Jena or Austerlitz. There was only the warfare in the mud, for which the sole appropriate war-cry was, "They shall not pass". It was a new France, new at least in the esti-

mate of mankind, that faced the problems of peacemaking in 1919.

It mattered little, however, to France that this error of judgment had been corrected. As the bugles sang peace and the armies of the Allies withdrew from her soil, a steadily increasing sense of the wrongs she had suffered took possession of her. This feeling, of course, was prevalent in other countries also. Italy felt injured because her share of the glory was less than she expected, and because her reward of territory was less than she had counted upon. Germany felt injured because the war guilt was fastened upon her, because the terms of peace were forced upon her, because she was disarmed among armed nations, and because her future was mortgaged to an indefinite term by reparation payments. Racial minorities in several places felt injured because they could not be ruled by their own kith and kin.

France had the most excellent right to feel injured. Most of the warfare was waged within her borders. One tenth of her area, chiefly the north-east part, was utterly devastated. Hundreds of thousands of homes were demolished, and vineyards and orchards destroyed. Four hundred thousand acres of forests disappeared completely, and more than a million acres were ravaged in part. Grain fields were turned into a wilderness of shellholes, trenches and barbed wire entanglements; the soil itself contained millions of unexploded shells. Twenty thousand factories were wrecked and several million people deprived of shelter and employment alike. The fruits of the labour of these millions, in turn, were lost to the nation, and the burden of feeding and housing them was added to the distresses of war.

The sense of injury was aggravated after the Peace Conference by the sense of insecurity. The refusal of the United States to enter the League of Nations upset the arrangement that was contemplated for safeguarding the peace of Europe. The French could not forget that the

Germans, though disarmed, still outnumbered them by three to two, counting the Germans in Germany alone, and there are millions of Germans outside of the new Republic of Germany. While this fear was hanging over the people there was the question of internal order. The dread of Bolshevism was not remote, because the distresses of the people were extreme, and communists were active; some of the socialists also leaned towards extreme measures. To the fear of Germany and of Bolshevism was added the problem of money. The ability of the country to pay had been so diminished by the costs of the war that the value of the franc kept dropping steadily until it finally reached two cents; the par value of the franc had been 19.3 cents in American money of the gold standard.

It follows that France has been compelled to deal with three main problems since the War, (a) reconstruction, (b) security, and (c) finance.

Reconstruction

The task of restoring the factories, farms and cities of the devastated areas was undertaken at once, and with all the more confidence because it was expected that the costs would be collected from Germany as payments on account of Reparations. France, of course, was still mindful of the war of 1870-1871, when she was compelled to repay to Germany the whole cost of the campaigns. She still overestimated the sums that the German people could collect and deliver. She did not realize that German armies had inflicted more damage than the German people could ever pay. Consequently, billions of francs were merrily voted for rebuilding under the head of Recoverable Expenditure. When Germany failed to pay there was no recourse but to make the best of a bad bargain and add the vast sums expended to the National Debt, which was done in 1926. In the meantime, 22,000 factories had been rebuilt, far superior to the old, because the plans and the machinery

were of the latest pattern. Within three years French trade had recovered its pre-War volume, and in later years this was greatly exceeded.

Security

In the meantime the quest of security was anxiously prosecuted. It must be remembered that France could not forget how near she came to defeat in the Great War. She did not by any means feel the confidence of a victorious nation. The Bolshevist Revolution of 1917 had deprived her of the old ally against Germany, Russia. The refusal of the United States to join with Great Britain in guaranteeing her security left her almost isolated on the continent. The first step towards making new defensive alliances was a treaty with Belgium in 1920, but Belgium's aid, though certain, was not adequate for safety. The second step was to conclude a defensive alliance with Poland, which was ratified in 1922. During the same year an effort to secure the pledge of help from Great Britain failed. In 1924 Ramsay MacDonald and Edouard Herriot, both socialists and both recently chosen Prime Ministers, induced the League of Nations to draw up an agreement pledging such nations as might sign it to come to the defense of any nation that was attacked. This was the much discussed Geneva protocol. By a protocol is meant a draft of an agreement that is intended to serve a certain purpose until something more complete and final may be agreed upon. The Geneva Protocol attempted to accomplish more than was possible at the time, but it served the end of rendering more clear the obstacles that stand in the way of world peace.

When once it was realized that the cause of peace could be furthered but slowly and only one step at a time, the way was opened to the preparation of the Locarno or Rhineland Pact, which guarantees the quiet of the Rhine Valley. This will be placed in its proper setting in the chapter on the Progress of Peace (page 774). It is sufficient here to record

that it eased the anxiety of France while it helped to restore the self-respect of Germany, temporarily at least, and brought her into the League of Nations the following year, 1926.

It must also be stated that the year of Locarno marked the return of France to a less apprehensive frame of mind. Her anxiety had been at its height in 1923, when her troops were sent into the Ruhr, across the German frontier. That same year, when Germany was rightly feeling extremely aggrieved, France signed an alliance with Czechoslovakia. This negotiation was so ill-timed that there was fear of an invasion of Germany. After the Locarno Pact was signed France made treaties with Rumania in 1926 and with Yugoslavia in 1927, but these agreements recognized the principles endorsed by the League of Nations, namely, arbitration of differences and recourse to the League and the Permanent Court of International Justice. It is rather unfortunate, however, that France should have allied herself with all three members of the Little Entente (Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Rumania) and with Poland; this makes a semicircle around Germany and seems like a return to the old practice of the Balance of Power.

The anxieties of France in the last ten years have been somewhat increased by the transformation of Italy. The new Italy of Mussolini is altogether more formidable than the Italy of pre-war days. It is united as never before and it knows its own mind. The two countries are old rivals in North Africa and in naval affairs of the Mediterranean. In order to offset French friendship with the Little Entente, Mussolini's government has courted the friendship of Spain, Albania and Hungary. The Italian navy has been strengthened. This leads France to aim at maintaining a navy equal to Italy's in the Mediterranean in addition to ships on the Atlantic and other seas, which is an obstacle to the reduction of navies. Nevertheless, both France and Italy signed the Paris Peace Pact of 1928 and, still better, joined

in the Four Power Pact of 1933, guaranteeing the peace of Europe for the following ten years.

Finance

The eagerness to make herself safe against future invasion was a prime cause of the financial troubles of France. The Government made generous loans to Poland and to the members of the Little Entente. A second cause was the expectation of gigantic payments from Germany, which led to enormous expenditures upon reconstruction. These expenses were met by raising huge loans and by printing great quantities of paper money. The consequent decline in the value of the franc caused great distress, because wages did not increase in proportion. Families living off the interest of loans were reduced to poverty. The crisis came in 1926 when the value of the franc fell to two cents. It was only then that the people were ready to face the facts and submit to the selection of Raymond Poincaré as Prime Minister; he was a statesman of known courage and ability. It required force of character to impose still heavier taxes and to cut down the public payrolls. Thousands of positions in courts and prisons and in the army were abolished. Interest rates were cut from 6% to 3%. At the end of the year the new economies were reflected in the value of the franc, which rose to four cents. Two years later its value was stabilized or fixed at this figure, which to be exact is 0.392 cents. This means that the French people who had loaned their country money by buying its bonds were compelled to accept in payment one-fifth of what they had been promised.

The franc had barely been stabilized at four cents when the world depression of trade began in 1929. Three years of this were sufficient to destroy the hope of receiving further reparation payments from Germany. This claim, however, was relinquished in 1932 only upon the expectation that the United States would scale down the War Debts. This was not done, and in December the French Govern-

ment defaulted on its payment. This decision was not due to lack of gold, because the treasury had a huge store of it. It was due to the feeling that France had all along been assessed for more than her share of the costs of the war.

Another grievance of France was the high value of the United States dollar, which hampered her trade. In April, 1933, the new President of the United States, Franklin D. Roosevelt, ordered payments in gold to be stopped. This meant that the gold standard was suspended and only paper money circulated. The consequence was that the dollar dropped in value in terms of francs. At the World Economic Conference in the summer of 1933 the French delegates tried to have currencies stabilized at new low values like their own. This plan was defeated because President Roosevelt declared it inadvisable to take any such step while business conditions were in process of recovery. Undoubtedly the Economic Conference met too soon.

Advantages of France

The Government of France appears at times to act perversely but it is really strong and self-reliant. Changes of cabinets occur frequently (no fewer than 30 between 1917 and 1933) because the number of political parties is large; there were fifteen parties in the election of 1932. This means that Prime Ministers must choose mixed teams representing enough parties to give them a majority, which are naturally not so loyal as cabinets drawn from single parties, as in Great Britain or the United States. The Anglo-Saxon two-party system works more smoothly. Nevertheless, no country of the continent resembles Anglo-Saxon countries so much as France. Even Socialist Prime Ministers like Herriot or Briand are moderate in their policies. The general resistance to extreme socialists and communists is a feature that France shares with Anglo-Saxon countries.

France is also strong because it is self-contained. The industries are nicely balanced between manufacturing and

agriculture. It possesses harbours for fishing and shipping on the North Sea and the Channel, on the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. Its colonial empire is second only to that of Great Britain, and none of its possessions are self-governing like the Dominions of the British Commonwealth of Nations. They all pour their trade into French lines of traffic. At the same time the colonial administration, including army and navy, offers careers of every sort for young Frenchmen. At home the population is stable. It does not increase like that of Germany and Poland, and consequently there is no problem of feeding more thousands of children every year. The standards of living are relatively high for Europe and offer many attractions to tourists from other lands. Travellers spent $600,000,000 in the country in 1928. No nation enjoys such an income from this source, but it never appears in the public accounts.

France is also strong because its citizens are all French. There are no racial minorities as in Yugoslavia or Poland. There is only one official language. Its population is perhaps more uniform than that of any country except Japan. France and Japan are to-day the outstanding examples of national states. They also resemble each other because their citizens do not willingly emigrate. Both resemble Anglo-Saxon countries because they practise parliamentary government and display a steady resistance to socialism and communism.

CHAPTER LXII

JAPAN

Strength of the Government—Strategic Geographical Position—Entrance into Manchuria—Importance of Manchuria—Wealth of Manchuria—New Restraining Treaties Since the War—Military Occupation of Manchuria, 1931—The Chinese Boycott and the Shelling of Shanghai—Japan's Alleged Necessities—The American Parallel—The New Kingdom of Manchukuo—The Subjugation of Jehol—The Truce, May 31, 1933—Proposed Purchase of the Chinese Eastern Railway—Problems of Mandates and Naval Equality.

Japan is the foremost of the Asiatic races by virtue of the completeness with which it has adapted itself to the ways of Europe and the Anglo-Saxon world. It is an eclectic state, like the new Republic of Turkey, which picks and chooses from all sources what its leaders deem to be best suited to its own needs. These diverse elements have been so skilfully welded together that the government is extremely stable and behaves like Anglo-Saxon governments towards socialistic movements. In 1931 the communists were rounded up and punished just as they were in Canada. Like Canada and the United States, it strays very little from the two-party system in parliament, and in spite of the fact that the factory system prevails and flourishes, the Labour Party polled only five per cent. of the votes in 1928. This is not because working men lack the ballot, because a very generous electoral law was passed in 1925; it is because the old sentiments of loyalty, self-denial and self-restraint are still strong. The strongest instinct is the impulse to support the Government.

Japan occupies a strategic position with respect to the east coast of Asia. On this account the Japanese Archipelago has often been compared to the British Isles, which seem to be similarly situated with respect to Europe. This comparison, however, though enlightening, might also be

misleading. If we could imagine the Japanese Islands placed in the Atlantic off the coast of Europe, they would extend from Land's End southward far beyond Spain. If placed in the Atlantic off the coast of North America they would extend from Labrador to Florida and Cuba.

This strategic position was capitalized for the first time when Japan made its bow as a world power in 1894-1895, and asserted an easy superiority over the decadent Manchu government in China. As a fruit of this victory she acquired the valuable island of Formosa, the world's chief source of camphor. Any further increase of island territory, however, was promptly checked by the entrance of the United States into the Philippines, only three years later, in 1898. The new turn of events could only result in diverting the attention of Japan to the mainland of the continent. Manchuria was nearer and far more tempting than the Philippines. It was wrested from Russia in the war of 1904-1905, and the victor took over the leases of Port Arthur and Port Dairen on the Kuantung Peninsula. The possession of these harbours, along with the railways, was all that the European powers would consent to at the time, but the Japanese had made a great gain and could afford to wait. No Government in the world understands better how far it is permissible to advance at a given moment.

Manchuria, which for thousands of years was merely a barbarian neighbour or an outlying province of China, had suddenly become, with the advent of the age of railways, one of the world's danger points. On the mainland of Asia there are no ice-free ports north of it. The Russian terminus of the Trans-Siberian Railway was fixed at Vladivostock, but Russia required an ice-free port. It was this necessity that caused her to secure a lease of Port Arthur and permission to construct the Chinese Eastern Railway across Manchuria, that is, through Chinese territory. From Harbin, a point on this line, the South Manchurian Railway was built to Mukden and Port Arthur. The

result was that Mukden developed into a great railway centre, serving to connect points on the Pacific with the capitals of Europe.

When Japan stepped into Russia's place in 1905 she acquired a property far more lucrative than any islands of the Pacific. Near Mukden are extensive deposits of coal



Chinese Buddhist Temple, Mukden

and oil-bearing shale; elsewhere are mines of iron and other minerals, all of them supplementary to the possessor's home industries. These were vigorously and capably exploited during the ensuing years, and in the meantime Chinese farmers, attracted by railway transportation, and spurred on by floods, famines and disorder at home, poured into the new fields at the rate of more than a million in a single year. They now comprise almost the whole population of 29,500,000, nearly three times the population of Canada. The Japanese, on the other hand, who do not so willingly emigrate, number only 200,000. In spite of this

fact they controlled the railways, new and old, and, of course, the ports.

During the Great War, when the nations were desperately engaged in western Europe, Japan employed her opportunities to the fullest extent in tightening her hold upon Manchuria. When the War was over the whole world realized that a new situation existed in the Far East. The old alliance of Great Britain and Japan against Russia had become a dead letter, because the Czars and their policies were no more. Accordingly, in place of it, a Four-Power Treaty, signed by Great Britain, the United States, France and Japan, was adopted at the Washington Conference in 1922 (page 780), whereby they agreed to respect each other's possessions in the Pacific. At the same time Japan was also restrained by a Nine-Power Treaty, which guaranteed the integrity of China, its sovereign rights, and the principle of the Open Door, or equality of rights for all foreign nations in Chinese trade. Japan also became a signatory to the Briand-Kellogg Pact of 1928, renouncing war as an instrument of policy, and pledging the signatories to seek solutions of their troubles by peaceful means.

Notwithstanding all these pledges, voluntarily given, the Japanese Government in September, 1931, did not hesitate to pour armed troops into Manchuria, justifying their action on three grounds: (1) the mysterious death of a Japanese officer at the hands of Chinese officials; (2) damages inflicted by Chinese residents upon the property of certain Koreans (subjects of Japan), owing to a dispute over an irrigation ditch; (3) an alleged attempt upon the part of the Chinese to dynamite a railway track. This invasion was speedily expanded to such dimensions as to constitute a military occupation though war was never declared. An independent state was set up with a Manchu prince as its head, a member of the family that had ruled in China as the Manchu Dynasty. In China the disorder was such as to make effective military resistance impossible, although

bands of both regular and irregular troops in Manchuria afforded many an opportunity for the Japanese to display their science and their courage. The real retort of the Chinese was a general boycott of Japanese goods enforced by secret societies. This was a vital blow to industrial Japan, because one-quarter of all her exports normally reach Chinese shops.

As a retaliation for the boycott, Japanese warships were ordered to sail to Shanghai and shell certain Chinese sections of the city, which was boldly done in the presence of warships of many nations. The destruction amounted to many millions of dollars in value; a multitude of people was rendered homeless, and 2,600 were killed or wounded.

All of these operations by land, sea and air were carried out without declaring war, and in spite of protests from the League of Nations and the United States. Japan justified her action by necessity; her sixty-five millions must look to Manchuria for food, coal and minerals. China, they claimed, was utterly unable to maintain order; she was powerless against Russian Communism, and Japan must of necessity erect a buffer state between herself and the Soviet; the Chinese Republic was then (summer of 1932) ruling only three of its twenty-four provinces; several of the western provinces had gone "red"; under the circumstances Japan's only recourse was to set up a Manchurian government under her own protection. She professed to desire no territorial rights.

These arguments are all based upon facts and, so far as Manchuria is concerned, might be deemed just and reasonable. After a seemingly similar fashion the government of the United States has landed armed forces in Haiti, San Domingo and Nicaragua in the interests of order and American commerce. This is their so-called Caribbean Policy. Japan has manifestly adopted a Caribbean Policy of its own, and upon a vaster scale. The principles of law might perhaps be strained to excuse even this, but the

shelling of a helpless population at Shanghai because of a boycott could hardly be justified by any imaginable reasoning. In the autumn of 1933 the Japanese themselves declared a boycott against cotton grown in British India. Later in the year they were refusing to buy American cotton offered by Chinese merchants.

On September 15, 1932, at Changchun in the palace of the puppet king, Henry Pu Yi, Japanese legates went through the ceremony of formally recognizing the new Kingdom of Manchukuo, and signed a treaty by which their country undertakes to defend it at home and abroad, but not to impair its territory. Postage stamps of the new kingdom were already printed and available for use.

From this time onward the Japanese troops professed to be acting on behalf of Manchukuo. Their chief objective was the rich and beautiful province of Jehol in south-western Manchuria. It is described as a superbly picturesque region, with mountains, clear air, forests and limpid streams, for two centuries the summer playground of Chinese emperors. Its wealth is due to opium, because the poppy flourishes there marvellously. As a producer of revenue the opium traffic is unsurpassed. The crop tax in Jehol has run as high as thirty Chinese dollars per acre, a levy that no other product could pay. The Japanese, of course, soon possessed themselves of this province, and they plan to close the gate in the Great Wall leading to Peiping; the opium caravans will be headed to the sea, and Japanese laboratories will manufacture the opium derivatives, such as morphine and cocaine, which the medical world requires. The Manchukuo government at once cut the crop tax in half, in order to speed up the production. It need hardly be added that the increase of the supply of these devastating, habit-forming drugs is viewed with the greatest alarm by all races, civilised and uncivilised.

Following the seizure of Jehol, the Japanese made a punitive incursion south of the Great Wall, for the purpose

of discouraging "resisters" and bringing the Chinese to a "reasonable frame of mind". A truce was signed on May 31, 1933, by which the Chinese agreed to withdraw their troops within a line ten miles distant from Peiping. As soon as the Japanese officials were satisfied that this had been done, they would themselves retire with their soldiers to a given line. This means a "demilitarized zone" between Peiping and Manchukuo. It is expected that the final terms of peace will demand the recognition of Manchukuo, and perhaps an indemnity for expenses incurred in "purifying" Jehol.

While Manchuria is manifestly lost to China, it is no less lost to Russia. On the day of the truce, May 31, the Japanese cut the connections of the Chinese Eastern Railway with the Russian Trans-Siberian Railway on the east; the western connection had already been cut in April. In June the Soviet Government agreed to sell the railway to the kingdom of Manchukuo, the Japanese acting as agents. It will be remembered that the cost of building the railway fell to Russia in the days of the Czars. Russia has now only the port of Vladivostok, which is not ice-free. To offset this weakness, and to meet the growing menace of Japan, the Soviet Government in December, 1933, began to offer free land in eastern Siberia to peasants, coupled with the privilege of selling their grain and cattle in open market for a period of five years; peasants who practiced collective farming might have a similar privilege for ten years. Fishermen were offered higher prices for their fish and soldiers in the same area were promised a fifty per cent. increase in pay.

It has been mentioned elsewhere that Japan resigned from the League of Nations in March, 1933. This raises the question whether she can continue to exercise the mandate over some 1,600 islands in the Pacific, which she accepted in 1920 "on behalf of the League". Japan has announced her intention of retaining them as "part of her

line of defence", and on the grounds that Great Britain and France assented to the plan before it was handled by the League. On the other hand, Germany has declared her intention of demanding their return along with other German



Photo from Ewing Galloway

THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS IN SESSION

It was from a session like this that Mr. Matsuoka, the Japanese delegate, made a dramatic exit in February, 1933. The formal resignation was received in March but is not effective for two years. Japan has since paid her share of the expenses of the League.

colonies. At the same time Japan has revealed her intention of demanding recognition as the equal of Great Britain and the United States in naval power, instead of the 5:5:3 ratio established at the Washington Arms Conference in 1922.

CHAPTER LXIII

SOVIET RUSSIA

Dimensions of Soviet Russia—Its Compactness—The Government of the Federal Type—The Constitution—Organization of the Government—The Real Nature of the Government—The Position of Joseph Stalin.

Education.—Faith in Education of the Young—Scope of the Educational Programme.

The Five-year Plan.—Doubling the Output of Farms and Factories—American Methods of Mass Production adopted—Collective and State Farms—Uselessness of Opposition—State-Marketing of Grain—Management of Oil Industry—Absolutism of the Communist Party—Contrast between Soviet Russia and the Anglo-Saxon World.

It has already been mentioned that the Russian Empire was dissolved, following the revolutions of 1917, and that the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.) took its place. Its territory was reduced by the formation of five republics on the Baltic Side, namely, Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Poland. Bessarabia was given to Rumania and certain districts in Transcaucasia to Turkey. The total loss of territory, however, was only seven per cent., and the total loss in population only twelve per cent. Soviet Russia still exceeds in area the United States and Canada combined, and is more than twice as large as Europe. It extends over two continents from the Baltic to the Pacific Ocean and it reaches from the Arctic Ocean to the Black and Caspian Seas.

It is the largest solid block of land in the world under a single government. In times past it has been exceeded in magnitude only by the old Russian Empire itself, and by the Mongol Empire of Genghis Khan and his successors in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. In modern times it is exceeded in respect of both area and population by the British Empire, but the British possessions are scattered over the Seven Seas and several of them are genuinely independent and self-governing.

In outward form the Soviet Government is of the federal type as developed in the United States and Canada. It consists of eleven autonomous, that is, self-governing, republics and thirteen autonomous areas. The name Russia cannot be correctly applied to the entire area, although Russia proper is the largest part of the whole. For example, beyond the Caucasus in the south are situated Georgia, Azerbaijan and Armenia, which form a group by themselves and are not Russian by race or language. They are called the Transcaucasian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic.

As the custom has been ever since the United States of North America came into being, the leaders of Soviet Russia drew up a document to serve as a Constitution, which was adopted in 1923. Like the American Constitution and the British North America Act, under which Canada is governed, provision was made for the admission of new units to the federal state as time went on. There is this difference, however, that "each federated republic has the right of freely withdrawing from the union". The ballot was given to all citizens, male and female, of eighteen years of age and over, with notable exceptions, namely, clergymen, employers of labour, and all persons engaged in no socially useful work.

The local unit of government everywhere is the Soviet or Working Men's Council, which includes women. These elect delegates to the All-Union Soviet Congress, which meets in Moscow at least every two years. When this Congress is not in session the administration devolves upon a Central Executive Committee. When this Committee is not in session the responsibility rests with a body of 27 members called the Praesidium. What corresponds most closely to the Cabinet in Anglo-Saxon countries is the Council of People's Commissars, which actually carries on the government with the usual division into departments, Foreign Affairs, Army and Navy, Transportation, Post and Telegraphs and so on. There is a Supreme Court to interpret the laws

and to decide controversies which may arise among the various Republics.

This description does not reveal the true nature of the Soviet Government. It is not even strictly correct to call it a Republic. It is not a democracy. There never was anything really similar to it in all previous history, and there is nothing like it to-day unless the Fascist regimes in Italy and Germany. The similarity between Italy, Germany and the Soviet consists in this, that each country is ruled by an organized society that includes only a small part of the population. The real power in Italy is Benito Mussolini backed by the Fascist Party. The real power in Germany is Adolf Hitler backed by the National Socialists. The real power in Russia is Joseph Stalin backed by the Communist Party. Stalin, however, is more of a despot than Mussolini, because his Communist Party does not include two per cent. of the people. In December, 1931, Communists were reported as numbering 2,750,000, Young Communists, 6,000,000, and Pioneers, 7,000,000, out of a population of 164,000,000. The Fascist Party in Italy includes 1,329,693 out of a total of 42,118,835. Figures for the National Socialists in Germany are not yet available.

The name of Stalin does not appear at all among the high officials of the Soviet Government. The post he holds is that of Secretary-General of the Political Bureau. Stalin is the power behind the Bureau; the Bureau is the power behind the Communist Party, and the Communist Party is the power behind the Soviet Government. Not only is Stalin supreme in Russia; by virtue of his position as Secretary-General of the Political Bureau of the Communist Party he is responsible also for keeping in touch with communistic societies all over the world, and for distributing communistic literature. It has already been mentioned (page 647) that for maintaining these contacts a committee known as the Third International was founded by Lenin in 1919. This body is less active than previously; the govern-

ment is concentrating all its energy upon the completion of its intensive programmes of internal development. The conversion of the world to Communism did not prove so easy as was expected. By the time that the Soviet has set its own house in order, it may be that the rest of the world will be even better prepared to resist. It may even turn out that the Soviet will be content to allow events elsewhere to take their natural course.

Education

The last phase of the revolution in Russia, which established the Soviet Government, was backed by much knowledge and experience. It bore very little resemblance to the rash outbreaks that swept Europe in 1848, when Socialism was young. In 1848 it was not yet a generally accepted idea that the education of children should be the task of the government and carried on at the expense of the people; moreover, the courses of study for vast public school systems were not yet blocked out. By the time that Czarism was swept away in 1917, on the other hand, the new Socialism was not only fortified by long experience with conspiracy and revolution, but was also equipped with the fully matured methods of western education. The new citizenship, which was to be Communism, and the new religion, which was to be atheism, were to be founded at once upon a colossal programme of education at public cost. The hope of the new order was pivoted upon childhood and youth. Of men and women past the middle years, only submission, obedience and co-operation were required.

The Soviet expended more than a billion dollars for education in 1929-1930. At the close of the year 1930 a four years' course of elementary education was made compulsory for the first time in Russian history. Special text-books have been prepared to inculcate the principles of Communism and atheism. As the early dangers of the Soviet are survived the tendency is to broaden the course of study so as to resemble more the procedure of western education in general.


Longitude 60° East from Greenwich
EUROPEAN RUSSIA
SOCIALIST REPUBLICS OF SOVIET RUSSIA
SIBERIA
ARCTIC CIRCLE
TRANS-SIBERIAN RY.
Trans-Siberian Mts.
Sea of Okhotsk
Kamchatka Pen.
SAKHALIN I.
KARAFUTO
KURILE IS.
EMPIRE OF JAPAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
Mediterranean Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Lake Baikal
Amur R.
Yellow Sea
East China Sea
Japan Sea
Sea of Japan
TURKEY
Angora
Istanbul
Smyrna
Caucasus Mts.
Volga R.
Ural R.
Ural Mts.
Orenburg
Tobolsk
Omsk
Tomsk
Krasnoyarsk
Irkutsk
Yakutsk
Khabarovsk
Vladivostok
Harbin
MANCHURIA
Mukden
Kirin
Hakodate
Aomori
Sendai
Tokyo
Yokohama
Osaka
Kobe
HONSHU I.
SHIKOKU I.
KYUSHU I.
Nagasaki
Shanghai
Nanking
Hankow
Chungking
Yangtze R.
Hwang Ho
Peiping
Tientsin
Great Wall
Kalgan
Urga
OUTER MONGOLIA
Desert of Gobi
Mts.
Altai Mts.
Semipalatinsk
Kirghiz Steppe
L. Balkash
Tashkent
Turkestan
Samarkand
Bokhara
Khiva
Aralsk
Orsk
Caspian Depression
Astrakhan
Saratov
Moscow
Leningrad
Odessa
Baku
Batum
Tiflis
Kars
Erzerum
Trebizond
Ankara
Sivas
Angora
Smyrna
Adana
Aleppo
Damascus
Beirut
Haifa
Jerusalem
Amman
Gaza
Suez Canal
Port Said
Alexandria
Cairo
Nile R.
Red Sea
Gulf of Suez
Gulf of Aqaba
Sinai Pen.
Mecca
Medina
Riyadh
NEJD
KUWAIT
Persian Gulf
PERSIA
Teheran
Kazvin
Resht
Enzeli
Meshed
Seistan
AFGHANISTAN
Kabul
Kandahar
Herat
Khelat
BALUCHISTAN
Quetta
Peshawar
Lahore
Delhi
Lucknow
Benares
Ganges R.
Indus R.
Punjab
Kashmir
Srinagar
Himalaya Mts.
Karakoram Mts.
Tarim R.
Yarkand
Kashgar
Khotan
Lhasa
TIBET
REPUBLIC OF CHINA
Yunnanfu
Canton
Hong Kong (Br.)
Macao (Port.)
Hainan
Taiwan (Formosa)
Tropic of Cancer
Luzon I.
Manila
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS (To U.S.)
Mindanao I.
Sulu Sea
Palawan I.
Celebes Sea
Borneo
Dutch East Indies
Java
Sumatra
Singapore (Br.)
Malay Pen.
Siam
Bangkok
Gulf of Siam
FRENCH INDO-CHINA
Hue
Saigon
Mekong R.
Irrawaddy R.
Mandalay
BURMA
Rangoon
Bay of Bengal
Andaman Is. (Br.)
Strait of Malacca
Arabian Sea
Gwadar (to Oman)
Muscat
Oman
Aden (Br.)
Gulf of Aden
HADRAMAUT
Kuria Muria Is. (Br.)
Socotra I. (Br.)
Ahmadabad
Bombay
Hyderabad
Goa (Port.)
Bangalore
Madras
Pondicherry (Fr.)
Karikal (Fr.)
Mahe (Fr.)
LACCADIVE IS. (Br.)
CEYLON (Br.)
Colombo
Yanaon (Fr.)
Chandernagor (Fr.)
Damao (Port.)
Diu (Port.)
INDIAN OCEAN
Scale of miles
0 250 500 1000
British
French
Soviet Republics
Williams Engraving Co., N.Y.

Asia in 1934

While the chief attention is paid to the education of children, no fewer than 50,000 schools have been maintained to teach the younger adults to read and write. By this method it is claimed that illiteracy has been reduced by one half. The total expenditure for education exceeds the appropriation for national defence by $400,000,000. Nevertheless, all males are required to submit to military training. Citizens not engaged in socially useful work are not required to serve in the army nor permitted to vote; they are outcasts.

The Five-Year Plan

In spite of all the learning of the Soviet leaders it was impossible to transform a highly organized empire into a socialistic state without an interval of floundering. The first plan adopted, often referred to as NEP (New Economic Policy), was a system of farming out the industries to foreign firms, each contract being called a "concession". When this proved a failure the famous Five-Year Plan was announced in 1929, although it was really begun the previous year and was intended to reach its objective in 1933. The aim was to double the output of both farms and factories within the period. No art of advertising was omitted to arouse the enthusiasm of the people, who by this time included a generation already trained for ten years in Soviet principles.

American methods of mass production were logically selected as being best adapted to the new standardized Russian mind. A series of giant contracts were signed with the Radio Corporation of America, the General Electric, the Ford Motor Company, and other well-known firms. Three thousand skilled engineers from abroad, of whom one thousand were Americans, were engaged to superintend the construction of the new factories and other works. Part of the plan was universal electrification, including 64 regional power plants, one of which, situated on the Dnieper River, would be the largest in Europe. Among other pro-

jects were the construction of pipe-lines from the oil-fields to the sea and the completion of railway service for all parts of the Union. The Turkestan-Siberian Railway, connecting Samarkand with the rest of Soviet Russia, was finished in 1930, a year and a half ahead of schedule.

Agriculture is supremely important in Soviet Russia because 85 out of 100 people are accustomed to no other form of labour. In this department also new measures have been devised to meet new needs. At the time of the revolution in 1917 the peasants took possession of a billion acres of land which had belonged to the nobles. Farms were small, ranging from 15 to 35 acres. It soon became evident to the Soviet leaders that under this small-farm system the country could never compete in the world's grain markets with Australia, Argentina or Canada. It therefore became part of the Five-Year Plan to institute both collective and state farming on a large scale.

For the large-scale agricultural production a suitable district in the black lands in southern Europe, similar to American prairies, was selected. State farms were blocked off, each containing as many as 100,000 acres. Ploughing, harvesting and threshing are all done with machines. The workers are fed and housed by the government. The parallel plan, of collective farming, is similar, except that the peasants pool their holdings and carry out the usual operations by their joint efforts. Naturally the peasants object to surrendering their holdings to the community, but resistance is useless. The Soviet Government has more power than the Czars ever dreamed of possessing. The penalty for stealing grain for private use from a collective farm is death, and the penalty is imposed and carried out.

All the grain belongs to the Government and must be delivered to its agents. Each worker is apportioned his share, and the surplus, if any, may be sold abroad. This was done for the first and only time in 1930, which demoralized the wheat market and aggravated the world-wide depression.

A very distressing feature of the Five-Year Plan is known as the "liquidation of the kulaks". The kulaks are the richer peasants. Naturally they offered more opposition because they had more to lose, and in the winter of 1930 armed rebellions broke out. The Government could not afford to be lenient. On the contrary it was imperative that the process of collectivising the farms should be speeded up, for the excellent reason that the 90,000,000 kulaks and moujiks, rich and poor peasants, are bearing the greater part of the burden of the Plan. The cities with their government theatres, co-operative stores and housing plans are run at a loss, and urban populations are consequently living off the labours of the peasants. The mildest penalty of opposition is the boycott. This means that the kulak is unable to borrow money to buy ploughs or harrows because the Government owns the banks; he cannot secure seed-grain because the Government holds the granaries. At times the farmers of a whole district are dispossessed by force and become "declassed", a sort of outlawry. In 1929 a group of more than 23,000 in the single district of Irkutsk in Siberia was declassed in this way.

Without petroleum as a producer of cash income the Five-Year Plan could hardly have worked at all. Russia ranks third among the world's producers. In 1929 a pipeline was completed to connect the oil-fields at Baku on the Caspian with Batum on the Black Sea. It is 513 miles long. The product is exported to England, Italy, France and Germany, and in the autumn of 1932 shipments arrived in Canada. The whole output from this and other fields is sold by a government marketing board called the Federal Naptha Syndicate, and the proceeds flow into the public chest. The province of Azerbaijan, where the oil is produced, derives no more benefit from it than the remotest member of the Union. All other large industries are conducted after a similar fashion. The aim is to abolish private profit entirely.

To-day the world abounds in political experiments. The nineteenth century conflict between autocracy, democracy and Socialism came to an end in 1918. The new conflict is between democracy, Socialism and Fascism. The world has many democratic states, some semi-socialistic states in Central Europe, and only one socialistic state, Soviet Russia. Yet even Russia is not purely socialistic according to Marxian principles. The proletariat is far from ruling the country. It is ruled by the Communist Party, which is less than two per cent. of the population. Karl Marx called upon the proletariat of all countries to unite. There is not an example in history where the proletariat of a single country united. On the contrary, Socialism in Europe multiplied the number of parties and created bedlam in parliamentary government. There have been extreme socialists, moderate socialists, Christian socialists, and various lesser breeds. The proletariat of Soviet Russia is not voluntarily united; it is being firmly herded as only the subjects of ancient despotisms can be herded. The aims of the new despotism are different from those of Peter the Great, but the methods are similar.

In respect of magnitude the Soviet experiment has its sole rival in the Anglo-Saxon world. In all other respects the two are poles apart. The standard of living is highest where men are free, and where careers of distinction are open to all who possess talent and display diligence. The success of the Soviet experiment depends upon compulsory co-operation; the Anglo-Saxon races have always placed their faith in voluntary co-operation. The two tendencies constitute main currents of World History to-day. In spite of this divergence there is hope of ultimate harmony if the League of Nations and the World Court are supported with even a fair degree of sincerity and faith. A feasible programme of unity has been outlined if only the will to work together can be fostered until it overcomes the temptation to pull apart.

CHAPTER LXIV

THE REPUBLIC OF TURKEY

The Unity of the Turkish Republic—No longer a Moslem State—Racial Nationalism—Social Ideas of Europe Copied—Political Ideas of Europe Copied—Education of Children and Youthful Adults—Industrial Programme—The Dictatorship of Mustapha Kemal Pasha—Contrasted with Anglo-Saxon Countries—Significance in the History of Asia—Contrast With the Middle Ages.

Turkey, like Russia, is a republic constructed out of the remains of an empire, but it has suffered a far greater reduction in size, having lost almost all of its territory in Europe besides Arabia, Palestine, Syria and Mesopotamia. The residual area has the advantage of being very compact, virtually consisting of Asia Minor, an oblong block south of the Black Sea. In point of race it has been further unified by the expulsion of more than a million Greeks and Armenians since the Great War.

This young Republic is no longer a Moslem state. The Sultan has been deposed even as Caliph, and in 1928 the National Assembly renounced Mohammedanism as the state religion. This is significant as an admission that Turkey surrenders its ancient claim to be the champion of Islam in the Near East. What the Crusades failed to accomplish has been brought about by the slow processes of time and by the Great War, which upset that perilous fiction, the Balance of Power. The jealousies of the Great Powers had been protecting Turkey for two centuries.

Having been separated from Islam, it follows that the Turkish Republic is an embodiment of racial nationalism only. Consistent with this is the removal of the capital from Constantinople to Angora, an inland town of Asia Minor, where the Ottoman Turks were once exceptionally strong. This was calculated to make the same sort of appeal to Turkish loyalty as the removal of the capital of the

Chinese Republic from Peiping (Peking) to its former seat at Nanking; nor must it be overlooked that Soviet Russia established itself in the old capital Moscow rather than in the more recent capital of St. Petersburg (Leningrad). Constantinople now means little to the Turks, and there is no longer anything to gain by making a feature of it. Re-



Photo by Burton Holmes from Ewing Galloway

CONSTANTINOPLE

The water front as seen from a ship in the Bosporus. The domed mosques and slender minarets are typical of Moslem architecture.

cently permission was given to remove the Turkish decorations from the Christian mosaics in the church of St. Sophia, which will hereafter be preserved as a monument of Christianity and Islam alike. The neighbouring straits are now part of a neutral zone and under the control of an international commission.

It is further noteworthy that the ideals of the Republic are distinctly European. The men have abandoned the red fez caps, which characterized the race under the old regime, and now wear stiff hats. The rest of their garb is also in

keeping with western ways. Polygamy was abolished in 1926. At the same time religious marriages were made optional and civil marriages compulsory. In 1930 women were given the vote in local affairs, and two were appointed as judges. Neither are Turkish women lacking who demand for their sisters all the liberties that their sex enjoys in western Europe or America.

The Government has also been Europeanized in a remarkable way. The Grand National Assembly meeting at Angora in 1920 drafted a Fundamental Law, which declared that all sovereignty rested with the people and was exercised through their representatives elected to the said Assembly. In 1925 a Constitution was formally adopted, which followed the example of France in having the President elected by the Assembly. The term for both Assembly and President, however, is four years, as in the United States. In 1926 three codes of law were enacted, the civil code being framed on a recent Swiss model, the criminal code similarly Italian, and the commercial code German. This procedure is characteristic of Asiatic races when they decide to Europeanize their governments and their social and industrial methods. Japan, for example, followed the Prussian model in its government and its army, but preferred the British model in naval affairs. The Turkish Republic, however, seems to have been captivated chiefly by French nationalism.

The new government could not fail to be influenced by the Soviet experiment. The working of this influence is revealed by the emphasis placed upon education. In 1928 the Arabic alphabet, which is said to be very ill-adapted for writing the Turkish language, was abandoned, and the Latin alphabet adopted in its place. Within a single year no fewer than 323 books were printed in the new type by the government printing office. A limit of three years was set for learning to read with the new letters, and half a million adults were soon enrolled in special classes. In two years it is said that illiteracy had been reduced by one half. The

programme was speeded up by the preparation of new text-books and a new dictionary. These were furnished without cost to needy pupils. Those who successfully pass a test are given a certificate entitling them to vote. The possession of this certificate is obligatory for all men and women who were less than forty years of age in 1928. As in Soviet Russia, the older generation is deemed to be less useful to the new regime.

The Turkish Republic would not be in style without a definite industrial programme. The government has been hampered because it possesses no such legions of educated socialistic economists to call to its aid as were available to Soviet Russia. In 1929, the same year that the Five-Year Plan was formally adopted in Moscow, the Turkish National Assembly approved of a Twelve-Year Plan, during which an expenditure of $120,000,000 should be made upon railways, harbours and irrigation works. Swedish engineers were engaged to superintend the work of construction. A commission of French experts had already carried out an economic survey of the country.

The master of Turkey is the urbane Mustapha Kemal Pasha, capable soldier, diplomat and administrator. His pre-eminence is due to his force of character and his talents, because he has no Communist or Fascist Party behind him. There is no Socialism in Turkey. Kemal Pasha has twice been elected President for the term of four years. He is well educated, experienced, equally cautious and courageous, and ever willing to abandon good plans for better ones. Unlike Soviet Russia, his government has not repudiated the national debt.

These two experiments, Soviet Russia and the Republic of Turkey, stand miles apart inasmuch as the one boasts a socialistic programme and the other nothing of the kind. Nevertheless, they have this in common, that they are attempting to put through vast programmes of change as a mass movement. This method has characterized the history of Asia more than that of Europe. It would be absurd

to attempt to carry through political, social and industrial reformations on such a scale in western Europe, and still more so in Anglo-Saxon countries. In the Anglo-Saxon countries, there is continual change in given directions, but it proceeds gradually. The new grows out of the old. Crown colonies become self-governing Dominions. Self-governing Dominions grow into equality with the mother-land. The Anglo-Saxon pattern of self-government unfolds itself in many forms, differently in the United States and Canada, somewhat differently in South Africa and Australia and New Zealand, but it always grows from the inside outward. There is little grafting of foreign ideas on the old plan.

From the point of view of World History it may also be pointed out that Soviet Russia and the Turkish Republic are chess-men in a colossal play of destiny. Taken along with British India and Burma, French Indo-China, and a Europeanized Japan, they envelop the heart of Asia. Europe is at last closing in upon that vast continent in a modern, irresistible crusade. The scream of the locomotive now echoes through the storied mosques of Samarkand, and regions that once re-echoed to the galloping hordes of Genghis Khan and Tamerlane are drably ruled from far-off Moscow. The primeval caravan routes now traverse the new Turkoman Socialist Soviet Republic. Where only thirty years ago was the impenetrable heart of Asia, giant dams and reservoirs are being constructed to transform forbidding deserts into fertile fields of glistening cotton, and electric power will be generated to turn the humming wheels of machinery where until yesterday the click of the rug-weaver's loom was often the only sound to break the silence of the streets.

This is a reversal of the main currents of the Middle Ages, when expansion was the watchword of Central Asia, and mounted hordes galloped afar to pour through the passes of India, overran the jewelled cities of Persia and Mesopotamia, leaped the Dardanelles into Europe and brought the peril of Asiatic despotism to the gates of Vienna.

Moscow, where the Political Bureau of Joseph Stalin rules supreme, was for two centuries the capital of a Mongol province. There was a time when the script of Kublai Khan in Peking was law to the borders of Poland. To-day the tide flows the other way, and the flood of American and European industrialism spreads widely over the home-land



Courtesy U.S.S.R. Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries

CELEBRATION OF ANNIVERSARY OF THE OCTOBER REVOLUTION, SAMARKAND, THE CAPITAL OF THE UZBEK REPUBLIC

of Hun, Mongol and Turk. Whether Soviet Russia endures is a question apart from this inundation. The fact remains that machines made in Sweden or America are murmuring in cities that until yesterday had learned but little since the days of Solomon; that swarthy families of Samarkand and Bokhara, whose ancestors had known no change for centuries except a change of masters, are viewing moving-pictures of modern factories and caterpillar tractors, and are being taught to despise the native priest because he is unable to explain the radio.

CHAPTER LXV

ITALIAN FASCISM

A Period of Imitation, 1871-1922—The Fascist Revolution, 1922—Meaning of Fascism—Fascist Method of Securing a Majority in Parliament—Government Non-Socialistic—Educational Programme—End of the Quarrel With the Pope—Industrial Programme—Victory Over Criminal Organizations—Increase of Territory—Significance of Fascism in World History.

During the half-century between 1871 and 1922 the people of Italy made a sincere attempt to practise parliamentary government of the Anglo-Saxon type, and much genuine progress was made. Nevertheless it was an epoch of imitation, not creation. When the Industrial Revolution took place in the northern districts, especially around Milan, the working class came to the fore and proved extremely sympathetic to socialistic propaganda. The consequence was more imitation, because Italian socialists looked to England, France or Germany for their ideas. In the end came a chaos of parties and the frustration of all. It became impossible for any Prime Minister to maintain a majority long or to provide a vigorous and fearless administration. The king lived a rather retired life with his family, and left full responsibility to his ministers.

Socialism was submerged by patriotism during the years 1915-1918, while the country was in the War, but the old troubles recurred with increased bitterness after peace was made. Workers foolishly seized factories which they could not operate; strikes were incessant, and industry was partly paralyzed. The Government could neither maintain order in the streets nor rescue the treasury from bankruptcy. Then occurred an almost bloodless revolution. On October 22, 1922, a body of black-shirted soldiers marched on Rome and assumed control by consent of the king. These men called themselves Fascists. They were not imitating Eng-

lish statesmen nor English, French or German socialists. They had developed a plan that was thought out in Italy for Italians and by Italians. The epoch of imitation had at last come to an end.

Since 1922 the new Government has renounced, one after another, all the venerated watchwords of the nineteenth century, democracy, parliamentary government, representative government, and popular sovereignty. Into the discard along with these has gone Socialism itself. The country is governed by the Fascist Party headed by Benito Mussolini. This dramatic personage, for Mussolini is a matchless actor, graduated from the ranks of the socialists and survived a career of agitation, persecution and exile hardly less chequered than those of Trotsky, Lenin and Stalin. He probably anticipated them in announcing a definite programme of reconstruction for Italy, and he resembles them inasmuch as he rules his fellow-countrymen with the support of an organized party devoted to himself. Fascism stands for "Law and Order". It is named from the *fasces* of the ancient Romans, which were bundles of rods for scourging and axes for execution carried by the attendants of the higher magistrates. Along with this symbol the Fascists have revived the ancient military salute, consisting of the upraised right hand. It is Mussolini's plan to revive the greatness of ancient Rome. The traditional anniversary of the city's foundation, April 21, 754 B.C., has been revived as a national holiday.

New devices of government have been invented to cure the country's ills and wounds without reference to any theories whatever. In 1923 it was decided to assign two-thirds of the seats in the Chamber of Deputies to the party securing the largest number of votes; this solves the difficulty created by the multiplicity of parties. A slate of candidates is framed by the Fascist leaders, and the people vote for or against the whole slate; more than ninety-eight per cent. of them vote for it. Newspapers are limited in

number and strictly censored. There is little freedom of speech or of public meeting. Outspoken opponents of Fascism depart to voluntary exile in Paris or find themselves confined on an island in the Mediterranean. Italy is ruled by the Fascists and the Fascists are guided by Mussolini, just as Soviet Russia is ruled by the Communist Party and the Communist Party is guided by Stalin.

Nevertheless, the new programme is not socialistic. There is no attempt to abolish capitalism. Capitalists and working men alike are recognized by the government. The two groups are comprised in thirteen Fascist Organizations. The geographical system of representation customarily followed in Anglo-Saxon and most other countries has been abandoned. The new divisions are occupational. In one class is the employers, such as farmers, merchants, manufacturers, shippers and bankers; in the other are farm-labourers, clerks, factory employees, and brain-workers. Strikes and lock-outs are absolutely forbidden, and courts have been established for settling all disputes. Resort to them is compulsory. Both capital and labour are required to co-operate for the service of all.

Measures for confirming and perpetuating the Fascist regime are similar to those adopted in Russia. Attention is concentrated upon the young. The Fascist Party numbers less than a million and a half; citizens above a certain age are not eligible to be admitted. Fascist organizations similar to the Boy Scouts enrol some hundreds of thousands of "Young Italians" and "Little Italians". There is an army of Fascist soldiers much larger than the state army, supplied with arms and available in peace or war. They wear black shirts as a distinctive feature of dress, which appeals to patriotic memories of Garibaldi's famous "red shirts" without suggesting Russian "Reds"; all connection with Communism is savagely avoided.

The ancient claim of the Roman Catholic Church to have authority over the education of the young has been vigor-

ously resisted, but the long-standing estrangement between the Vatican and the Italian Government has been cured. In 1929 the Vatican City, including St. Peter's Church, the Vatican Palace and Museums, the Vatican Gardens, and other properties, became a little sovereign state. This ended a quarrel running over fifty-nine years, from 1870 to the above date (page 563). In the Vatican Palace is a wireless station from which the Pope made the first world-wide broadcast on February 12, 1931.

The gist of Mussolini's industrial programme is "work, not doles". In order to provide work a series of huge state enterprises was announced in 1931, namely, railway and highway construction, hydro-electric plants and drainage of marshes. Part of the general plan is the effort to make Italy more self-contained than formerly. The country possesses almost no coal; hence the necessity of utilizing all water-powers. It was formerly a large importer of wheat; hence the plan to increase the acreage by draining marshes with a view to enabling the country to feed itself. Pasture-lands of great age have been broken up by the plough, drawn by powerful tractors. This valiant attack upon the current depression is a crowning example of the amazing activity manifested throughout the ten years of Fascist rule. Italy has become more truly a nation than ever before, far more than in the much belauded years following 1870.

Between the years 1927 and 1931 the notorious criminal organization known as the Mafia was stamped out in Sicily by a series of court trials. Hundreds of criminals who had lived by "racketeering", that is, by extortion, and ruled the country by murder and maiming were brought to justice. The former governments had never dared to molest them. The Fascists are unafraid. Fascism, "Law and Order", is more than a catchword.

It was not until the years following the war that Italy attained her natural boundaries, including Italia Irredenta (unredeemed Italy), which Austria retained until 1918. The

recovery of this gave Italy the port of Trieste, and by negotiation Fiume was obtained from Yugoslavia in 1924. Italy also possesses certain Aegean Islands, and extensive colonial lands in Africa, namely, Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and part of Somaliland. It has expanded, and looks confidently forward to further growth. The birth-rate has increased by two-thirds in the last few years. While Mussolini has sanctioned the signature of the various Peace Pacts, he maintains a threatening attitude, decrying democracy and lauding the spirit of adventure, even if it should involve conflict. He is confident in the capacity of his programme to build up a bigger, better, and happier Italy.

In World History the recent events in Italy illustrate the extreme nationalism now rampant in Europe and Asia. The break with both democracy and Socialism exemplify the new disposition among the nations to make original, colossal, collective experiments backed by some compelling authority. It is a new kind of absolutism or despotism. It contains much that is socialistic, but it renounces Socialism as a name and as a doctrine. It stands for discipline and control, as opposed to freedom of discussion and private enterprise. It is a reaction from the chaos of parties that vied with one another and defeated one another in the fifty years preceding the War. Italy is a forward-looking country. The youth of the nation has been renewed, and its morale raised to a point never before reached. This was one purpose of the Great War, to afford every nation an opportunity to work out its own destiny, but neither in Italy nor in other countries has the result been well foreseen. It seems as if we are glimpsing

> Phantoms of other forms of rule,
> New majesties of mighty states.

In the nineteenth century English parliamentary government spread rather too widely, among races to which it was less serviceable. The Latin peoples are rather too ardent and imaginative to conform voluntarily to the mode-

rate self-restraint of Anglo-Saxon self-government. They seem to acquit themselves better under the compulsion of a a great enthusiasm kindled by enlightened but autocratic leadership. The Latin-American Republics reveal a similar tendency to interrupt the working of the American plan of republican government, which they all adopted, by submission to the rule of idealistic dictators.

In November, 1933, Mussolini announced the last election of the Chamber of Deputies, which will be asked to abolish itself within five years. Its place will be taken by a National Council of Corporations. This means a "Corporate State", ruled by guilds of employers and employees. He said that parliamentary government was out-of-date, that Socialism was decadent and Capitalism "lacked the sense of humanity."

CHAPTER LXVI

THE REPUBLICS OF GERMANY AND AUSTRIA

Increase in Number of Sovereign States—List of Sovereign States in Europe—Succession States—The Principle of Self-Determination—Racial Minorities—Inconveniences of the New Divisions—The New Nationalism.

The Republic of Germany.—Losses of Territory—The Revolution of 1918—Germany from 1918 to 1933—The Weimar Constitution—The Sense of Defeat and Despair— Increase of Exasperation.

The Revolution of March 5, 1933.—Rise of the National Socialists—Fascist Elements in Their Programme—The German Element in Their Programme—Campaign Against the Jews—Suppression of Rival Organizations—The Hierarchy of Leaders—The Doctrine of Pan-Germanism.

The Republic of Austria.—Losses of Territory—The Revolution of 1918—A Semi-Socialistic State—Difficulty of Raising Revenues—Protection of the League of Nations—The Danger of Hitlerism—Alarm of the Neighbouring Nations.

Since the Great War and the Peace Treaties the number of sovereign States in Europe has increased from eighteen to twenty-eight. By a sovereign State is meant a political unit that is not restrained in respect of its freedom of action by any power outside of itself. It issues its own postage stamps and coins and makes bargains with other States. In practice, of course, no State is absolutely free and independent. Every State must respect the property and rights of other States. Even Great Britain, which is one of the strongest States that ever existed, has often been compelled to modify its plans for the sake of its self-governing Dominions; it is also restrained by the nearness of the nations of Europe, with which it must carry on trade and intercourse.

In addition to these there is the small Vatican City, of which the Pope is sovereign. The German city of Danzig on the Baltic is free and self-governing, though joined to Poland by a customs union. There is also one grand-duchy, Luxemburg, two small principalities, Liechtenstein and

Monaco, and two tiny republics, Andorra and San Marino.

In 1933 the sovereign States of Europe were as follows:

KINGDOMS	REPUBLICS	
Albania	Austria	Latvia
Belgium	Czechoslovakia	Lithuania
Bulgaria	Estonia	Poland
Denmark	Finland	Portugal
Great Britain and Northern Ireland	France	Russia
	Germany	Spain
Holland	Greece	Switzerland
Iceland	Hungary	Yugoslavia
Italy		
Norway	SELF-GOVERNING BRITISH DOMINION	
Rumania	The Irish Free State	
Sweden		

The term Succession States is frequently applied to Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Poland, because they were formed out of territory previously comprised in the German, Austro-Hungarian and Russian Empires. It is less exactly employed of Yugoslavia and Rumania, which are kingdoms substantially increased at the expense of Austria and Russia respectively. In this book the four Republics of Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania will also be called Succession States, because they were formed out of lands and populations formerly subject to the Russian Emperors. This is a most convenient single name for the new or enlarged States of Europe.

The increase in the number of States was made under the high emotional tension of the Peace Conference, when a terrible war was very fresh in men's memories and the eagerness to right old wrongs was very strong. It seemed desirable then above all other things that ambitious empires should be dissolved, and that every race should be given the privilege of choosing its own form of rule. So it came about that the peacemakers sanctioned a redivision of the lands of

Central Europe, so far as possible, along the lines of race and language. The principle of "self-determination" was enjoying a peculiar sacredness in 1920, and faith in democracy was running extraordinarily high.

It was, of course, impossible to draw such dividing lines on the map that all Poles would be in Poland, all the Germans in Germany or Austria, and all the Slavs in Czechoslovakia or Yugoslavia. Although the task of the peacemakers was performed to the best of their ability, no fewer than 30,000,000 people in Central Europe found themselves in political groups of different race and tongue. For example, there are half a million Germans and almost as many Hungarians in Yugoslavia; there are 110,000 Hungarians in Czechoslovakia; there are a million Germans in Poland; and the Jew, of course, is almost everywhere, being a man without a country. These groups are called "minorities" and were taken under the special protection of the League of Nations, but they have caused much anxiety, especially at points like the Polish Corridor (page 757), where other causes of irritation aggravate differences of race.

The break-up of the old empires into small States also created inconveniences that had hardly been foreseen. There were ten additional governments issuing coins and paper money of their own; this complicated the business of banking and made trouble for travellers. There were 12,000 miles of international boundaries where before the Peace Conference there were but 5,000; this multiplied the number of custom houses and slowed up the circulation of goods. Lastly, the railroad systems, which had been planned to serve empires, were carved up into smaller units to serve the newly created States. This meant that through-freight trains were almost a thing of the past. It also meant that a passenger train might be stopped three times in the space of three hundred miles for customs and immigration inspection where previously there was no delay at all.

Still less was the new nationalism foreseen. The boon of self-rule was not merely seized and enjoyed. The feeling of freedom grew into selfishness and egotism. Each nation began to aim at self-sufficiency, and raised higher and higher the tariffs against imported goods. It turned out also that small nations were more liable to fears than large ones had been. The size of armies was increased. In 1932 the three Succession States of Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Hungary had more soldiers under arms than the old Austrian Empire maintained before the Great War. New alliances of powers began to threaten the peace of the continent. Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia and Rumania came together under an agreement called the Little Entente, and France assisted them with money and advice. Germany and Austria, of course, were restrained by treaties from uniting with each other or entering into alliances. This was a factor in the situation that irked the pride of Germany in particular.

As for the political history of Central Europe since the War, this is the resultant of old and new forces. During the early nineteenth century the British ideal of parliamentary government captured the middle classes of Europe under the name of Liberalism. In its wake followed Socialism, which captivated the working classes. Both came into rivalry with autocratic monarchies, especially in Germany and Austria. The War swept away the autocrats and left the field to Socialism and parliamentary government, which President Wilson called Democracy. When the new republics were formed in 1918-1919, democracy won the victory over Socialism and its bad brother Communism, but far too many parties existed to permit of strong administrations. Democracy works badly except where a two-party system prevails, as in Anglo-Saxon countries. The result was popular impatience and finally despair, which made men willing to submit to dictators, as in Italy, Poland, Hungary and Germany.

New forces which worked in the same direction were unemployment, national debts, vague fears of war, and uncertainty as to the future of European civilization; in other words, a failure of faith.

The Republic of Germany

If a map of Germany before the War be compared with a map of Germany in 1933 the difference is scarcely noticeable. The reason for this lies in the fact that her losses of territory in Europe were not extremely large, 27,000 square miles subtracted from 209,000, and they were widely scattered. Various transfers were required to be made to Belgium, Denmark, Lithuania, Poland, Czechoslovakia and France. The most costly of these was Alsace-Lorraine, which was returned to France. Alsace has deposits of potash that will last for centuries, and Lorraine has iron and coal. France was also awarded the coal mines of the Saar Basin, north of Lorraine, as compensation for the destruction of her coal-mines in the north. The Saar Basin itself was placed in charge of the League of Nations for fifteen years (1920-1935), after which the population will vote by plebiscite for union with France, union with Germany, or semi-independence.

The remaining population of Germany, which still numbered upwards of 60,000,000, set up a republican government. This step was inevitable on account of the suffering and humiliation brought upon the people by the imperial government. The Kaiser abdicated his powers both as King of Prussia and German Emperor on November 9, 1918, two days before the Armistice, and fled to a safe retreat in Holland. The ruling princes of the other seventeen States gave up their crowns, voluntarily or under compulsion. A self-appointed Council of People's Commissioners took charge of affairs and proclaimed the Republic of Germany. In the following January a general election was held to choose delegates to a National Assembly.

The Assembly met at Weimar in Thuringia in February, and its deliberations were embodied in what is popularly called the Weimar Constitution. Germany is still governed under this document or instrument, but on March 23, 1933, all essential powers under it were transferred to Adolf Hitler, leader of the National Socialist Party. Consequently the history of Germany since the War is divided into two parts by this date. From 1919 to 1933 there was a painful experiment with republican government. After March, 1933, the country was under a dictatorship.

Germany from 1919 to 1933

The working of the republican government has been described by an eminent German as a "permanent lame-duck session". This means that it was never strong enough to carry on with courage and confidence. The Weimar Constitution was drawn up under extreme stress, in the brief interval between a disastrous war and a humiliating peace. There were vociferous Communists who wished to set up a government dominated by councils of soldiers and workers on the Soviet plan. There were Nationalists who wished to recall the Kaiser. The Roman Catholics occupied a central position, as usual, and formed a stabilizing influence. There were other parties, too, such as Gustav Streseman's German People's Party, formed from the National Liberals; Streseman at first was a monarchist but switched to republicanism. Out of this welter of parties came a peculiar system of voting, which prevented any single party from becoming strong. The people voted for parties, not for candidates, and each party was allotted one representative for each 60,000 votes cast. At one time there were fifteen parties, and always too many. The Chancellor was compelled to choose his Cabinet from various parties, and complete co-operation was impossible. There was no lack of sane and able men. Streseman himself was forceful and wise; his death in 1929 was a great loss.

The trouble was with the system. Self-hampered governments were obliged to deal with a people smarting under a sense of defeat and despair. German money became worthless for a time, and the thrifty middle class was reduced to poverty. The nation faced a future of never-ending payments on account of reparations. From 1923 to 1925, because of an alleged failure to maintain these payments, the Belgians and French occupied the rich Ruhr Valley, where the iron industry was located; this almost deprived German manufacturers of the means of operating. The Dawes Plan of 1924 mended this evil to the extent that the amount of the annual payment was fixed, and the French and Belgian soldiers were withdrawn. The fear of being disarmed while other nations were armed was mitigated by the assurances of the Locarno Pact of 1925; and Germany's self-respect was partly restored by her admission to the League of Nations in 1926.

If multitudes of Germans could have emigrated at this time, as they did in the nineteenth century, the situation might have been eased so far as unemployment was concerned, but the New World desired no more settlers. There was no more free land waiting for the plough. From America came aid, however, in the form of loans, which made possible the continuance of payments on Reparations; these loans have been rightly described as "blood-transfusions"; along with similar loans from Great Britain, they increased slightly the power of resistance in a patient fast losing strength. In 1930 it was necessary to step down the annual payments and to fix a terminus at the end of fifty-nine years, the so-called Young Plan. By this time the world-wide depression had set in and blood-transfusions in the form of foreign loans came to an end. The year's moratorium of President Hoover on Debt Payments eased the situation in 1931, but in 1932 it was necessary for the Allies to give up the expectation of further payments on Reparations from Germany. This concession came too late.

The Germans were already desperate. They were also exasperated at the failure of the nations to disarm according to their pledges, and began to declare their intention of arming themselves contrary to the treaties. For a time during 1932 they withdrew from the Disarmament Conference at Geneva. In October, 1933, they withdrew both from the Disarmament Conference and from the League of Nations, rather than accept the proposal that they should gradually increase their armaments to an equality with other nations.

The Revolution of March 5, 1933

During these thirteen years of increasing despair and impatience a new party, the National Socialists, led by Adolf Hitler, was growing in power. In the newspapers they are often called Nazis (Nat'zees); their symbol is a mystic swastika, a black hooked cross. Numbering only seven members in 1921, they polled 6,401,210 votes in 1930. The fact that this number was doubled within the two following years shows how the despair of the people was growing, because the Nazis put forward a ruthless programme. As before, there was no lack of strong, conservative leaders; the President was General Paul von Hindenburg, universally trusted; Chancellors such as Bruening, von Papen and von Schleicher rightly gave prospect of good administration. All hopes of the moderates, however, were defeated, and Adolf Hitler was finally named as Chancellor. On March 5, 1933, a decisive election gave him a clear majority, and on March 23 an "Enabling Act" was passed, which made him an autocrat or dictator. The Republic remained in name, but it became, at least for an indefinite interval, a dead letter. The new Germany is often called the "Third Reich".

Hitler's programme is strongly coloured by Italian Fascism. His followers are marshalled like soldiers, wear brown shirts and use the Fascist salute. From Fascism

has been taken also the idea of a "totalitarian State": "This Germany," they say, "is to have only one goal, one party and one conviction; and the State organization is to be identical with the nation itself." The Nazis, like the Fascists, scoff at democracy: "It is a democratic fallacy that the people want to govern themselves; people only ask to be decently governed." This scorn of democracy means scorn of parliaments; meetings of the German assembly, the Reichsrat, have been suspenses until 1937, unless Hitler chooses to call them. The Nazis also scoff at pacifism; a nation must be ready to fight, they say, but they nevertheless express willingness to disarm along with other nations.



ADOLF HITLER

It would be an error, however, to lightly tag Hitler's programme as an imitation of Italian Fascism. There is an element in it peculiarly German. Its emotional basis is a burning faith in the superiority of the German race, which is devoutly believed to be a surviving branch of the Indo-European family which of old created rich civilizations in India, Persia, Greece and Rome; "The German people," runs one sentence in the programme of the Nazis, "form a race of peculiar energy and purity, with a remarkable culture of purely Germanic character." It may be added that the Germans use the term Indo-Germanic instead of Indo-European; they also call themselves Aryans with much pride.

This faith in themselves impels them to declare that the best culture is national, and to deride recent talk of "internationalism". It impelled them to attack the Jews, to dismiss them from positions in the post office and other public services, to expel Jewish professors from the universities, and to set limits to the numbers of Jewish students, lawyers and physicians. The violent handling of Jews in March, 1933, drew sharp protests from other countries, and the Nazis retorted by boycotting all Jewish shops for one day, April first. A protest from the League of Nations secured milder treatment for the Jews in Silesia, but the Nazis do not retreat from the position that Jews are to be regarded as citizens of a "second class". No Jew will be permitted to become a teacher or an editor of a newspaper.

In order to create "a uniform attitude of mind and will in the German people in support of the new regime," the Nazis proceeded to abolish or revamp all other organizations. The method adopted was to send bodies of storm troopers at an appointed time, invade the offices, seize the records and arrest the leaders. The communists were at once disposed of in this way. Even the Social Democrats, a very strong body, were expelled from public life. The labour unions were cheated out of their annual celebration, May first; it was transformed into a glorification of National Socialism; amplifiers carried Hitler's voice to a vast multitude assembled in the air-port at Berlin. On the following day the offices of the labour unions were raided, and orders were issued for them to cancel all connection with labour bodies in other lands. They are to be united with the middle class or bourgeoisie at home, not with workers of their own class abroad.

In June the new government felt strong enough to abolish the Nationalist Party, which favoured a restoration of monarchy. Its Battle Ring of 10,000 Green Shirts was disbanded. The Steel Helmets, a strong veterans' organization, was merged with the Nazis.

Already in May an attempt had been made to unify all the twenty-nine Protestant bodies in the Reich, for the Nazis declare themselves to be Christian but non-sectarian. Prime Minister Goering of Prussia declared himself to be the head of the Church. These measures caused murmurings of rebellion, but did not deter the government from attempting to abolish the Centre Party of the Roman Catholics. A convention of Roman Catholic journeymen in Munich was broken up by storm troopers and celebration of the mass was prevented. This was in pursuance of the policy of abolishing all parties or labour unions of a religious colour. For the sake of a united Germany differences of every kind must disappear.

The Hitler regime is one of several departures from democracy since 1917. If the word democracy is still employed, it is in a new sense: for example, Dr. Paul Goebbels, Minister of Propaganda, announced recently "the creation of the German democracy, in which people do not themselves engage in politics, but entrust this to men having their confidence—resulting in the planned construction of a hierarchy of leaders." This means that the leader is the keyman of the State: under him will be like-minded leaders of his own choice in charge of every department of state, every labour union, every lodge, including the freemasons, and every sport club. Even the churches, both Protestant and Catholic, must submit to appointed leaders.

A more menacing doctrine is Pan-Germanism, which means that the new movement must embrace all Germans. It alarmed Austria in particular, but it affords just cause for apprehension elsewhere. Since the programme of the Nazis is based upon race, the natural limits of it are the limits of German population, including the German minorities in Poland, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia, which alone run into millions. This is ominous to reflect upon, but it is hoped that when the National Socialist Government finds itself securely seated in the saddle, it will, like the

Fascist Government in Italy, become less militant in its foreign policy. It may be that the doctrine of Pan-Germanism has been put forward as a bogey to offset the threats of France and its support of the Little Entente (page 705). France has been rather too vindictive. Threats invite reprisals.

The Republic of Austria

The losses of territory suffered by Germany through the Peace Treaties were as nothing compared to the losses of Austria-Hungary. Germany lost only twelve per cent., but only twelve per cent. was left to Austria, 32,000 square miles out of 261,000. For this reason it is sometimes called "little Austria". Its population is now 6,700,000, about like that of London or New York City; before the War the population of Austria-Hungary was 51,000,000.

The outlying provinces, which the old empire had slowly acquired, were pared away at one stroke by the Peace Treaties. They were bestowed upon Italy, Yugoslavia, Rumania and Czechoslovakia: Hungary became an independent republic. This was a colossal change from the time when the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary controlled practically the whole Danube valley.

The republican government was set up after the Armistice in November, 1918. The surviving members of the Hapsburg family, which had ruled for 600 years, went into exile. There was subsequent danger of a Soviet form of rule, but this was averted. The new Austria comprises Vienna and eight small provinces. Fortunately, the population is extremely uniform in language and religion; it is ninety-four per cent. German and in like ratio Roman Catholic. Austria is considered the strongest Roman Catholic country in Europe. The political parties were similar to those that prevailed in Germany from 1918 to 1933, but less numerous. Two were especially strong, the Social Democrats, comprising the working classes chiefly, and the

Christian Socialists, comprising the upper classes in Vienna and the towns.

Austria might have been classed as a semi-socialistic State. It was more socialistic than Germany between 1918 and 1933. In Vienna the socialists were particularly strong. The property tax was practically abolished and revenues were raised by imposts upon amusements, restaurants, hotels, beer, servants, salaries, advertisements and the unearned increment. By the last named is meant a tax upon the increase of value in property between one sale and another. The amount of money spent upon education was doubled between 1914 and 1932, and the size of classes diminished.

Naturally the new government found it very difficult to raise sufficient revenues. The tax-paying provinces had been taken away. The factories of Vienna were deprived of the markets where they had sold their goods. The spinning mills of Vienna were cut off from the cloth factories of Bohemia (now part of Czechoslovakia) where their yarn had been sold. The railways, planned for an empire, were sheered off on three sides and divided with the Succession States. Austria might be compared to an apple-core.

It was alike necessary and just that the League of Nations should take the impoverished republic under its protection. In 1922 its finances were studied and reorganized by experts furnished by the League. Commissioners of the League remained in charge until 1928. During this interval huge loans were secured, chiefly from Great Britain and the United States. The money problem, however, had not been solved. In the meanwhile the Succession States had been building new factories of their own in order to be even more completely independent of Vienna. Another huge loan was necessary in 1930. In 1931, for the purpose of reviving its trade, Austria took steps to form a customs union with Germany, which meant that the two countries would have a single system of tariffs on imports from outside and free-

trade with each other. This was vetoed by the League of Nations because the Permanent Court of International Justice declared it to be contrary to the Peace Treaties.

It was after this time that the National Socialist movement in Germany began to aggravate domestic troubles in Austria. Adolf Hitler is himself an Austrian. His headquarters were in Munich, the chief city of Bavaria, close to the Austrian border. His programme made little appeal to the Viennese, but it was acceptable to the peasants in agricultural districts. Brown shirt brigades were organized and went through their drills in public. There were the usual processions and mass meetings, but the movement was not Austrian. The leader, Alfred Frauenfeld, received his orders from Hitler in Germany.

As soon as Hitler became supreme by the Enabling Act of March 23, 1933, the campaign in Austria began to be prosecuted vigorously. There was occasional violence, and many heads were bruised and some lives lost. For a time there was fear of civil war. There were three corps of men in Austria armed, uniformed and drilled; the Grey Shirts of the Home Defence League (Heimwehr) of the Christian Socialists, the Blue Shirts of the Social Democrats, and the Brown Shirts of the Nazis. The little "fighting Chancellor", Engelbert Dollfuss, was nevertheless undaunted. In June the Nazis were declared outlaws and hundreds of their leaders arrested. The official newspaper of the Cabinet declared, "Austria will not be a colony of Hitler. We prefer to be small but free.'

The plan of the Nazis to secure control of Austria was naturally alarming to other governments. The aim of the Nazis in their official programme was set forth as "the union of all Germans in a greater Reich (realm or state) in accordance with the right of self-determination." One of their newspapers made a very outspoken application of this doctrine: "In the Austrian peasant country we have a cultural and racial pillar of Germandom against the Slavic nations."

None of the neighbouring States wished such a plan to succeed. Not even Mussolini, no matter what satisfaction he might experience from seeing a Fascist government in Germany, could view with composure the appearance of an enlarged German State on his northern borders. To the Poles the prospect was so dismaying that in June they sought an alliance with the Little Entente. At the same time Chancellor Dollfuss visited London and Paris, and secured a loan of $40,000,000 to fight the Nazis. Neither France nor Great Britain could bear to think of a united Germandom without depressing forebodings. To France the possibility was most disturbing, because she never forgets that the Germans outnumber her people almost three to one.

In September, 1933, it was announced that Chancellor Dollfuss had demanded and received dictatorial powers with the avowed purpose of setting up a Fascist State. This means that the country will be governed in its own interests without consultation of the voters.

1934 - Italy sent troops to Brenner [illegible]
as a warning to Hitler
1934 - Socialists in Vienna [illegible]
by Dollfuss & Co.
1934 - Nazi Putsch - Dollfuss killed
Italy intervened.

CHAPTER LXVII

THE SUCCESSION STATES

List of New or Enlarged States—Common Characteristics.

New States of Central Europe.—States of the Little Entente—Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and Rumania—The Kingdom of Hungary.

The Republic of Poland.—Dictatorship of Marshal Pilsudski—A Moderate Administration.

The Polish Corridor.—The Free City of Danzig—Development of Gdynia.

The Baltic Republics.—Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania—Multiplicity of Parties—Division of Large Estates.

Portugal and Spain.—Revolution in Portugal, 1910—Revolution in Spain, 1931—Division of Large Estates—Self-government in Catalonia.

Between Germany and Austria on the west and Russia on the east lies a solid panel of new republics and enlarged kingdoms extending from the Balkan Peninsula to the Baltic Sea. Beginning at the South, these are Yugoslavia, Hungary, Rumania, Czechoslovakia and Poland, all created or increased by the Peace Treaties at the expense of the former German, Austro-Hungarian and Russian Empires. To the north are the Baltic Republics, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia and Finland, created out of territory previously Russian.

All of these have much in common. The populations of all were racial minorities before the War, who benefitted by the principle of self-determination that guided the Peace Conference. All of them are chiefly devoted to agriculture and possess a proportionately large peasant class. Before the War they were a source of lumber, grain and meat for the industrial centres of Central Europe. At the same time they furnished markets for the goods manufactured in the large cities. Their commerce was served in large part by the railway systems that radiated from St. Petersburg, Berlin and Vienna. These complex areas of commerce were, of course, carved into fragments by the Peace Treaties. Since the War the new countries have quite naturally pro-

ceeded to erect factories of their own in order to be as self-sufficient as possible; this, in turn, has tended to increase unemployment in the older manufacturing cities.

Another feature common to these parts was the system of large estates. Many of the peasants emigrated to America, and became familiar with the offer of free or cheap homesteads in the United States and Canada. This knowledge was a leaven that in the long run spelled the doom of landlordism. Immediately after the War the new governments began to buy the land and divide it into small plots among the peasants. Thus the one-family farm, so familiar in America, has become more and more common. This is one of the most cheering and wholesome features of a situation that for several other reasons is distressing.

It is convenient to make two divisions of this large group: (1) the new States of Central Europe, and (2) the Baltic Republics.

New States of Central Europe

Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and Rumania make a small group by themselves, being bound by the alliance called the Little Entente. This union, fostered by France, is designed to offset any possible increase of power by Germany. It is an unfortunate perpetuation of old resentments; it violates the spirit of the Peace Conference, and is one of the factors that undermines the faith of the nations in the progress of world peace.

Yugoslavia is an enlarged kingdom, ringed around by Italy, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, Greece and Albania. Few countries have so many neighbours. Its only sea-front is on the Adriatic, but the Danube River, an international waterway, is very important for transportation. The capital city is Belgrade, which has increased in population since 1914 from 50,000 to almost 300,000.

The core of Yugoslavia is Serbia, which furnished cause for the Great War, and in the modern State the seeds of

trouble persist. There are three races of Slavs alone, namely, Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and large minorities of Germans, Hungarians, Rumanians, Albanians, and Italians. Roman Catholics and Greek Catholics are about equal in numbers, and more than a million profess Mohammedanism.

It is small matter for astonishment that the path of the government has been a stormy one. In 1928 there was a multiple murder in the National Assembly. In 1929 King Alexander suspended the Constitution and ruled as dictator for two and a half years thereafter. Parliamentary government was resumed in September, 1931. The country produces chiefly cereals and meat, and its natural markets are in the countries to the north of it, which have been partly closed by high tariffs. Huge loans have been secured from western European banks to enable the government to carry on. This is a specimen of the general decrease of commerce and increase of borrowing that led to the world-wide depression of 1929 to 1933.

Czechoslovakia derives its name from two Slavic races, the Czechs and Slovaks, but the German minority amounts to a seventh of the population; there are also Hungarians, Ruthenians and Jews. The Czechs and Slovaks preserved their language and their racial pride through long periods of alien rule, and displayed no lack of capable men when the opportunity arose of forming a republic. The President, Dr. Masaryk, is one of Europe's outstanding men, and his advice was much esteemed at the Peace Conference, especially by President Wilson.

The land is fertile, and agriculture is the chief occupation, but the western part is also highly industrialized, being able to export shoes and chinaware in spite of high tariffs. American factory methods are well understood and successfully imitated.

Rumania is a kingdom greatly enlarged at the expense of Austria-Hungary and Russia. It is sometimes called

Greater Rumania. It is almost four times as large as present-day Austria and has three times the population. Its natural resources are vast, both above ground and below it. The oil-wells are very productive, and their importance is increased by the fact that Europe is poor in oil and densely populated. There is also coal, lignite and iron. Except in the case of oil, however, the development of the mineral

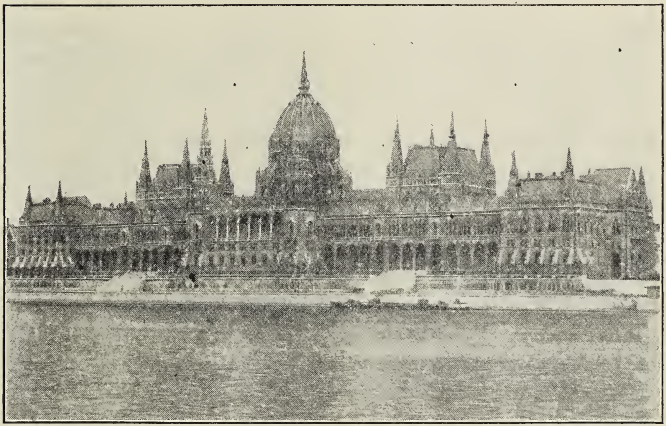


Photo from Ewing Galloway

THE HUNGARIAN HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT

This magnificent building was constructed at Budapest toward the end of the 19th century, when Hungary was three times as large as it is now.

wealth is slow, because four-fifths of the people are peasants and have little aptitude for the use of machines.

The most interesting feature of the post-war period is the division of large estates into small farms. A million peasants have secured land by this process. Very notable is the small area of the farms, eleven acres being a frequent allotment. This means that agriculture is mechanized to only a slight extent and much labour is performed by hand. Buffaloes are used for ploughing.

Parliamentary government prevails but its troubles are incessant, chiefly because of the multiplicity of parties and the lack of co-operation. Education is free and compulsory "wherever there are schools". Superstition is strong. It is not uncommon for a peasant to prefer the magic of a witch to the free services of a physician paid by the State.

The modern Kingdom of Hungary comprises less than a third of the territory that belonged to it as partner in the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Nine-tenths of the people are Magyars of Asiatic origin, but Christians. The chief minority is German. The conclusion of the War brought violent disorder and a temporary Bolshevist government, but this was overturned with the help of Rumanian troops. The country was fortunate to have at that crisis the strong hand of Admiral Horthy to steady the people. In 1921 he successfully foiled two attempts of the late Emperor Charles to regain his throne. Since that time Hungary has remained a kingdom without a king. Horthy wears the title of Regent. There are two Houses of Parliament and a President. A million acres of land have been divided among the peasants since the War. In 1928 fifty thousand gypsies were ordered to settle on land and dress like Hungarians.

The Republic of Poland

The Republic of Poland consists of territory recovered from the Russian, German and Austro-Hungarian Empires, by which the old kingdom had been partitioned in the eighteenth century. During all the years of their subservience, however, the Poles never gave up their language or their national aspirations. When the Great War and the Peace Conference afforded them an opportunity to reunite, they rallied together both in the home-land and from all quarters of the globe, especially North America.

It was natural for the Poles, having been the victims of three autocracies, to choose a government of the Anglo-Saxon parliamentary type. The head was to be a president,

as in the United States. The chief obstacle to its smooth operation was the lack of a two-party tradition. As many as twenty parties came into existence, a crop bred by the new-found freedom. This led to deadlocks, and the upshot was that Marshal Pilsudski executed a *coup d' état* in 1926 and made himself dictator.

Although Pilsudski graduated from the ranks of the socialists, he quickly disappointed the hopes of parties to the left. In 1928 he took a firm stand in defense of capitalism and landlordism, but he announced no definite programme as other dictators have done. His control of public order through the command of the army assured the country a peaceful administration. A firm stand was maintained against Communism; the nearness of Soviet Russia had much to do with this attitude. Parliament was not abolished: it meets but does not govern.

The friendly attitude towards landlords did not prevent the purchase and division of land among the peasants. In carrying out this reform great care was taken to give Polish farmers the preference over Germans; this was a natural retaliation for German mistreatment before the War. There was also a great desire to improve the opportunities of education for Polish children, but the programme took no such original forms as in Italy and Russia, and lately in Germany. The administration in general has been very conservative; it is non-socialistic. The most regrettable feature has been the increase in the size of the army. The fear that dictates this policy is kindled by friction arising from the land known as the Polish Corridor.

The Polish Corridor

The main problem of the peacemakers in fixing the boundaries of the new Poland in 1920 was to find her a sea-front and a harbour on the Baltic. It seemed the best solution to make the German city of Danzig at the mouth of the Vistula River a free city, and to concede Poland a

strip of land on the west of the harbour. It is this strip that is called the Polish Corridor. Unfortunately, it divides East Prussia from the rest of Germany and makes it necessary for East Prussians to cross foreign soil in going to and from their own capital. Besides, the Corridor has no natural feature to delimit it. Polish and German frontier guards face each other across a roadway.

Danzig itself has caused friction. It is more than a city; it is a city-state, possessing 754 square miles of land, 16,312 farms, and some forests. This area must share the use of railways and dockyards with Poland; it must also impose the same tariffs on imports (customs union). To facilitate these contacts a commissioner of the League of Nations resides in Danzig, but his task has not been an easy one. Recently there was hard feeling over the desire of Poland to have letter-boxes in the streets.

In the meantime Poland has been transforming into a modern harbour the fishing port of Gdynia, situated in the Corridor west of Danzig. A new town has grown up there entirely Polish, and in 1932 only one other port on the Baltic handled more shipping. This cut into the revenues of Danzig and threatened greater decreases for the future, because Czechoslovakia could very well use the new port. In September, 1933, it was finally agreed that Danzig should be assured forty-five per cent. of Poland's trade.

This situation along the Corridor and in Danzig is such as to cause irritation out of proportion to any hardship that is being suffered. It is one of the danger points of modern Europe. Germany cannot resign herself to the separation of East Prussia from the west of the Reich.

The Baltic Republics

The Baltic group comprises four republics formed out of territory separated from the Russian Empire, namely, Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. All have adopted written Constitutions and are trying to govern themselves

by parliamentary methods after the Anglo-Saxon fashion. The multiplicity of parties has stood in the way of success. At a recent date there were six parties in Finland, nine in Estonia, sixteen in Latvia, and eleven in Lithuania. Into this region political ideas flow chiefly from Central-Europe, and the Social Democrats are strong, as they were also in Germany and Austria until recently. In 1932 a Fascist Party arose in Finland and assailed the government without results. All four republics are opposed to Communism; the Finns expelled a Red Russian army in 1918 with the help of German troops. The population of all four is Lutheran Protestant for the most part.

Three-fifths of the land in Finland is forested, and lumber and paper industries employ many people. As one travels southward the importance of farming increases. A system of large estates prevailed in all four republics before the War, but the landlords were not so unpopular as in other parts of Russia. Their holdings have been acquired by Land Purchase Acts and divided among the peasants. A frequent allotment is forty acres per individual. Thus the one-family farm system of America spreads a very wholesome influence. It is as far removed as possible from the collective farms of Soviet Russia. It may not produce such cheap grain, but it breeds a good class of citizens.

Portugal and Spain

Portugal and Spain are not Succession States, but are conveniently mentioned here as being new republics. Portugal became a republic in 1910, but the path of its statesmen has been a stony one. Since that year there have been some fifty changes of government. The leaders are conservative, but are harassed by anarchists and communists. Newspaper reports of a plan to develop backward Portuguese colonies under international mandates elicited indignant protests in the spring of 1933.

Spain was under a military dictator, Primo de Rivera,

from 1923 until 1931, when it too became a republic. King Alphonso XIII, who fled to Paris, was the last of the Bourbon-Hapsburgs to hold a throne. He was declared a traitor and his estates were confiscated the next year. The Cortes (parliament) was summoned, and turned itself into a National Assembly for drawing up a Constitution. The delegates in general were bent upon radical measures, no fewer than 113 out of a total of 470 being Marxian Socialists. They were otherwise drastically divided among themselves, the number of recognized political parties exceeding twenty.

The year 1932 was marked by wholesale confiscations of large estates, for the purpose of dividing them into small farms. The first to be assailed were the Jesuits, whose holdings were worth $30,000,000; there was much burning of church property, and numerous attacks were made upon the clergy. This means that changes which swept the Spanish colonies during the nineteenth century have at last begun to rend the mother-land. In the spring of 1933 an order was issued excluding 80,000 monks and nuns from the occupation of teaching.

Spain has long slumbered and remained aloof from industrial progress. The exception to this is the north-east section, where Catalan is spoken. This part is highly industrialized, especially around Barcelona. As a province it demanded absolute independence in 1932, and was granted a limited degree of self-government. This concession to Catalonia was declared by the Premier to presage similar treatment for other provinces. The plan was to set up a federal system similar to that of the Dominion of Canada.

Other countries of Europe not specifically mentioned remain much the same as before the War.

CHAPTER LXVIII

THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Its Ancient Self-Sufficiency—Importunity of Foreign Trading Nations—The Four Revolutions—The Foreign Powers Become More Sympathetic—Education Under the New Republic—Political Programme Socialistic Without Socialism—Attempts to Recover Self-Respect—Japanese Invasion of Manchuria, 1931—Protection by Treaty.

Although the revolution which overthrew the Manchu Dynasty in China occurred in 1911, that is, before the Great War, it is convenient to classify the country among the New Republics. Of all the races that to-day are forced to struggle with grievous disorders the Chinese perhaps deserve the most sympathy. Their vast territory was for thousands of years as self-contained and self-sufficient in its trade as it was self-satisfied with its ancient and indigenous culture. It fed itself, it clothed itself, and devised its own remedies for its own ills. Dynasties rose and fell. With each new dynasty the Empire renewed its vigour and its youth, and the cycles of disorder and prosperity were perhaps no more marked than the cycles of war and peace among the nations of Europe.

Then, in the sixteenth century, came the western trader by sea, and with each decade his importunity increased. To refuse to do business was a crime. The ports were opened with guns. It was not until the nineteenth century, however, that all the traders of the West began to focus their enterprises upon the Empire of the Son of Heaven. The relentless hosts of Russia crowded in through Siberia from the north and north-west. Into the treaty ports steamed the fleets of the western world, through lines of their own war-ships lying at anchor. Foreigners took charge of the custom-houses; they established their own courts for the protection of their own nationals. Christian missionaries

invaded the remotest provinces. The French from their base in Indo-China began to carve off territory in the south. The rising power of Japan in 1894-1895 turned its new weapons against the very people from whom they had drawn of old their culture, religion and learning. At the same time the barriers were raised abroad against the industrious Chinese immigrants in all Anglo-Saxon and certain other countries.

The resistance to these universal impacts and restraints began to break down even before the fall of the Manchu Dynasty, and the people had no recourse but to accommodate themselves in the space of a few years to changes that in Europe had required many centuries, namely, religious revolution, intellectual revolution, industrial revolution, and political revolution. The peaceful and ceremonious philosophy of Confucius was abandoned, and the ancient system of education and examinations based upon the Confucian Classics was scrapped. The old examination halls, one of which in Nanking contained cells for 20,000 students, were abandoned. The scientific outlook on life and history came into conflict with comfortable superstitions and with native medical practice, which had more of magic in it than of knowledge. The household industries of winding, spinning and weaving silk began to have their rivals in cotton mills with tens of thousands of whirling spindles and thousands of clicking looms. The old imperial organization of viceroys, governors and magistrates was replaced by a republican government of a western model, which was utterly unable all at once to furnish an effective substitute for the old order of things.

The manifold assaults upon Chinese self-respect began to be mitigated as western nations began to feel ashamed of their contempt for races less commercially-minded than themselves. With the beginning of the twentieth century there manifested itself an increased consideration for all the native races of Asia and Africa. The government of the

United States repaid to China a large part of the Boxer indemnity for purposes of education (page 607). Nefarious plans for the partition of China were dropped; after the Great War there was no more talk of it. The integrity of Chinese territory and the sovereignty of China were both guaranteed at the Washington Arms Conference of 1921-1922. It seemed as if China would at last be permitted to work out her own destiny, no matter how painfully. How painful this process is bound to be may be gathered from the fact that in 1930 there were perhaps 3,000,000 men under arms in the country. Rival generals, often bandits, marched and countermarched, robbing, pillaging, holding captives to ransom, and living off the country. In was said that the republican government in 1932 was in actual control of only three out of 24 provinces. The recurrence of floods and famines aggravated the distress.

The new republican government seems to have made honest efforts to accommodate itself to the manifold revolution. As in all the New Republics, an ambitious programme of education has been adopted. The number of public schools, organized on western models, is reported as 135,000, and the number of pupils as 4,500,000. As in Soviet Russia and Turkey, simplified text-books have been prepared, chiefly by a Christian Chinese, a graduate of Yale University. By the year 1929 no fewer than 5,000,000 labourers are said to have acquired the coveted certificate of being a "literate citizen". It is aimed to raise the number of those who can read and write to 20,000,000, a small part of 400,000,000.

Strange as it may seem, China resembles Anglo-Saxon countries and Japan in its opposition to Socialism, as such. Nevertheless, the programme of the Republic, if it could be carried out, would embrace many of the measures that socialists demand. It includes old age pensions, insurance against accident, sickness and disability, and, of course, free education. Other reforms remind one rather more of

the aims of the French Revolutions of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, namely, equality before the law, prompt trial of offenders, and freedom of speech and of the Press. Other proposals seem to aim at direct democracy of a more recent type, the right to unseat incapable officials by popular vote and the right to express by the ballot the public attitude towards projected laws. These are known in America as the "recall and referendum". Naturally it will be a long time before such reforms become feasible. The present condition is chaotic.

In the meantime the republican government has been eager to recover its self-respect. Injuries to this are particularly painful to the Chinese. They have always been extremely proud, and it galls them to have foreigners maintaining their own courts in Chinese ports and to submit to have their custom-houses in foreign control. The Nationalist Government, for it need hardly be mentioned that China shares with Europe the epidemic of nationalism, attempted vainly to abolish the foreign courts by decree in 1929 and again in 1931. There is even less prospect of relief from the other humiliation. Foreign powers, with an Englishman at the head, still collect the revenues at the ports, because these, along with the salt monopoly, are the security for loans obtained abroad. Only the sum remaining after interest and other charges are deducted is turned over to the Government. This humiliation is likely to continue for a long time. Whatever virtues the Chinese possess, and they are not few, scrupulous honesty in handling public moneys is not one of them.

The most recent injury to Chinese self-respect was the invasion of Manchuria by their old pupils, the Japanese. Their control of the ports and railways, which began after the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905, was turned into a military occupation in 1931, as narrated elsewhere (page 712). In 1932 the former province was declared an independent kingdom under the name of Manchukuo. In 1933

Japanese armies advanced south of the Great Wall to within a dozen miles of Peiping.

In spite of all these tribulations the Republic of China is better protected by treaties than previously, and all countries except Japan are more disposed to respect them. Among western nations there is more knowledge of Chinese



Wide World Photos

NANKING

The Chinese Nationalist Government has established the capital in Nanking. Peking was formally abandoned as a capital in 1928 and renamed Peiping (*Bay-ping*), which means Northern Peace. The picture shows part of the city on the south bank of the Yangtse.

history and customs than ever before, and more esteem for the culture of the people in brilliant epochs of the past. Foreign missionaries have been displaying more consideration for Chinese religious practices. The view has been gaining ground that too much had been expected of the Chinese people. There is a reasonable disposition at present to concede them the liberty of working out their salvation, however painfully, in their own way.

CHAPTER LXIX

ASIA, AFRICA AND LATIN-AMERICA

Completion of Survey.

ASIA.—Palestine, Syria and Arabia—The Kingdom of Iraq—The Kingdom of Persia; Oil-Wells—Afghanistan, an Independent State—Tibet and Outer Mongolia, the Buddhist States—Kingdoms of Bhutan and Nepal—The Kingdom of Siam.

AFRICA.—The Kingdom of Abyssinia or Ethiopia—The Kingdom of Egypt; the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan—The Negro Republic of Liberia—The Sultanate of Morocco—Union of South Africa; Southern Rhodesia—The Rest of the Continent ruled from Europe.

LATIN-AMERICA.—Isolation of South America—Production of Precious Metals—Effect of the Monroe Doctrine—Effect of the Great War—Socialistic Movements—Frequency of Military Tyrannies—Latin-American Culture.

In order to complete this survey of the world since the Great War it remains to explain the isolation of the Latin-American Republics and to mention certain sovereign States of Asia and Africa.

ASIA

The dismemberment of the Turkish Empire was the beginning of a new era for the Near East. Palestine was mandated to Great Britain, and Syria to France. Motor-buses built in America now traverse the 600 miles from Beyroot to Bagdad in twenty-six hours. A hydro-electric plant has been erected on the Jordan River. The Kingdom of Hejaz on the Red Sea and the Sultanate of Nejd in the interior are now ruled by one and the same Arab sovereign. In 1932 the name of the two realms was changed to the "Kingdom of Saudi Arabia". It is important because Mecca and Medina are within its borders. Pilgrims now reach Mecca by motor-bus.

Mesopotamia, mandated to Great Britain, was re-styled by its Arab name the Kingdom of Iraq. King Feisal, a loyal ally in the Great War, was placed at its head. A treaty was

made in 1930 providing for its independence and the gradual withdrawal of British troops except the air-force. The League of Nations received it into membership in October, 1932. King Feisal died the following year while visiting Europe, and was succeeded by his son Ghazi.

Iraq shares with Persia a great economic importance on account of its petroleum, which has been exploited by British, French and American companies. Persia is once more a united kingdom after being sundered by the rivalry of Czarist Russia and the British. The British Government controls the oil-wells. The finances of the country were ably managed from 1922 to 1927 by an American official, who resigned control to a Belgian.

Afghanistan, long a buffer-state between Russia and British India, is now independent. King Amanullah made a tour of Europe with his wife in 1928, and went home to modernize his country. The result was revolution. A bandit known as the "water-boy" held the throne for seven months, when the former king's uncle retook the capital and executed the usurper along with seventy-five followers. He has since been recognized by both Soviet Russia and Great Britain.

Tibet, the Buddhist State, is ruled by the head of that religion, the living Buddha or Dalai-Lama. Nominally under Chinese suzerainty, it has expelled the Chinese garrisons. The soldiers are said to be trained by British officers. Another Buddhist State arose during the Great War, Outer Mongolia. It has a ruling Lama of its own, though nominally part of China. South of Tibet and neighbouring on British India are the two small States of Bhutan and Nepal, both ruled by Maharajahs (Great Kings) after the native Indian fashion. The former is subsidized by the British and the latter furnishes them the famous Ghurka soldiers. Both countries are strongholds of Buddhism; Nepal has 2,700 Buddhist shrines; the Buddha was born in Nepal. In 1924 the Maharajah, who is an

absolute king, declared slavery abolished. Owners were paid up to thirty-five dollars for females and twenty-six dollars for males by way of compensation.

The king of Siam, who visited Canada and the United States in 1931, was called upon to deal with a revolution the following year. He granted a Constitution and parliamentary government. His State was long treated by foreign powers in much the same way as China. It was only in 1927 that the more generous policy recently in fashion was extended to the ports; foreign consular courts were abolished and control of the customs surrendered. The country serves as a buffer-state between British Burma and French Indo-China. Buddhism prevails; there are 16,486 temples and 133,000 priests.

Africa

The encircling movement of European powers that is closing in upon Central Asia and China has already been accomplished in Africa. The partition of the continent has proceeded so far as to leave only the extremely ancient Kingdom of Abyssinia, or, more correctly, Ethiopia. The ruling sovereign, who was crowned with barbarian pomp in 1930, wears the proud title of "King of Kings of Ethiopia, the Conquering Lion of Judah and the Elect of God". The royal family claims descent from Solomon, and the people are Christians of the sect called Coptic. With the exception of the priests they are illiterate. The country has only one railroad, almost no highways, and very little foreign trade. Nevertheless it could not remain untouched by western ways and adopted a government of the parliamentary type in 1931. It had been admitted to the League of Nations in 1923 upon taking a pledge to suppress the slave-trade. This was a score for the League.

Egypt was taken from Turkey during the War and a British protectorate established. This was terminated in 1922, when the country became an independent kingdom.



AFRICA IN 1934

Great Britain, however, still stands on guard, and any hostile movement against Egypt is a hostile move against the guardian. Great Britain and the Kingdom of Egypt exercise a joint control over the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. This occupies a strategic position on the Cape to Cairo route, and Great Britain has made it plain that her dominion will be perpetual.

The world-wide effort to suppress the remnants of human slavery, which has characterized the years since the War, found a nest of this evil where it might have been least expected, in the Negro Republic of Liberia on the west coast of Africa. This was set up by former negro slaves from America in 1822. In 1930 an international commission, acting for the League of Nations and the United States, made a report revealing shocking conditions. A change of government then took place and slavery was declared to be abolished, but the affairs of the Republic are now being superintended more closely than before by the United States and the League of Nations.

On the north-west corner of the continent is Morocco, which is ruled by a Sultan under French dictation. In the South is the Union of South Africa, which has a mandate over South-West Africa; Southern Rhodesia is also British and self-governing. The rest of the continent is all ruled by European powers either through outright ownership or by mandates from the League of Nations. Africa, it may be noted, was more completely partitioned than any other continent.

Latin-America

It has been the fate of South America to stand apart from the main currents of World History ever since its discovery. Within fifty years after 1492 the Spanish Colonial Empire had enveloped it and sealed it as a closed area, though Portugal held Brazil. The West Indies were partitioned by England, France and Holland during the

years that the Caribbean Sea was a storm-centre of naval warfare, but the mainland of South America remained almost unscotched; British, French and Dutch Guiana are the paltry relics of that ancient colonial rivalry. It was North America that was destined to witness great colonial enterprises with far-reaching consequences for the modern political structure of the inhabited world.



Photo from Ewing Galloway

RIO DE JANEIRO

Capital of Brazil. The city has a population of two millions. Buenos Aires, in Argentina, is slightly larger. It was at Rio that Don Pedro I ruled as first emperor of an independent Brazil; and at Rio, too, the Brazilian Republic was proclaimed in 1889.

During the colonial period, and later, Mexico and South America furnished the bulk of precious metal for the expanding European States. For the space of 400 years no less than two-thirds of the world's silver came out of Mexico alone, not to particularize the colossal contributions of Peru and Bolivia. It was Latin-America capital, to a great extent, that enabled modern Europe to expand.

With the dawn of the nineteenth century the backwash of Napoleonic Wars swept across the Atlantic, and undermined the toppling Spanish dominion. The new American pattern of Anglo-Saxon government was quickly established from the Rio Grande in Texas to the tempestuous Straits of Magellan. Hard upon the establishment of the Latin-American republics came the promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine, and the whole Western Hemisphere was withdrawn by American demand and with the consent of the



Courtesy A. P. Coleman

HERD OF LLAMAS IN PERU

nations from the sphere of European politics. The currents of World History then took their course towards Africa and Asia. The Americas, however, became the destination of the most colossal peaceful immigration in the whole history of the world; this was important as a relief to the rising tide of population in the countries of Europe.

In modern times the Latin-American States, while not in the van of world movements, receive the full economic effect of distant revolutions in trade and government. The World War demoralized the nitrate industry of Chili, in which Germany had chiefly participated. The business depression of 1929 demoralized the coffee industry of

Brazil, which supplies four-fifths of the world's needs. The contraction of loanable funds in London after the War opened a new market for American money, which was fully utilized. The banking systems of the whole continent have been reorganized upon the advice of American experts. The opportune opening of the Panama Canal, just as the Great War began, had already enhanced the opportunities of trade with the United States.



Courtesy A. P. Coleman

HAULING NITRATE OUT OF DESERT, CHILI

Latin-American peoples, who were not bred to self-government, and are powerfully attracted by foreign patterns of society, reacted sympathetically to European Socialism. Uruguay is a socialistic republic with compulsory education, old age pensions, limited working hours, and a great variety of measures for social welfare. Chili is following suit. There is a Socialist Party in Argentina and Trade Unions are strong. Mexico is trying to nationalize her industries and making it difficult for foreign companies to do business; the thrifty Chinese merchants were driven out in 1931. Large estates are being divided among the

peasants. Mexico shares with modern Spain a bitter hostility to the Church of Rome.

In politics the Latin-Americans more resemble the ancient Greeks than any modern races. Military tyrannies are frequent and short-lived. These are quite unlike the dictatorships in Italy, Poland and Turkey. They existed before the Great War. They are the logical result of experimenting in democratic self-government without preparation for it. In the last three years the rivalry of leaders has resulted in revolutionary conditions in Chili, Peru, Ecuador and Brazil, but such incidents do not belong to World History. The contentions of Paraguay and Bolivia over the Chaco district do come into World History because eighteen American States, including the United States, have notified the contestants that no changes of frontier will be recognized.

In the main, however, the Latin-American States go their own way and stand apart from the world's strife, though not from world culture. One of the greatest of living painters, Diego Rivera, is a Mexican. There is among them a multitude of people who love art and literature and the beautiful things of life. Their cities abound in graceful and imposing buildings. The greatest musicians find generous patronage among them. It is their good fortune, not their demerit, that the world's storm-centres are elsewhere.

CHAPTER LXX

THE PROGRESS OF PEACE

The Peace Movement Recent in Origin—The Working of the League of Nations—Member Nations of the League—The New Diplomacy—Achievements of the League—The Lytton Commission on Manchuria—The Working of the World Court.

THE REDUCTION OF ARMAMENTS.—The Limited Scope of the Peace Treaties—The Need of International Pledges in the Far East.

THE WASHINGTON ARMS CONFERENCE.—A Genuine Sequel of the Paris Peace Conference—The Five-Power Treaty Limiting the Size of Navies—The Nine-Power Treaty Guaranteeing the Integrity of Chinese Territory—The Four-Power Treaty Affecting the Islands of the Pacific—Value of the Conference.

THE LOCARNO OR RHINELAND PACT.—France and Germany Agree to Arbitrate Future Differences—Great Britain and Italy Agree for the Protection of the Rhineland—The Safety of Belgium Assured.

THE BRIAND-KELLOGG PACT.—Scope of the Pact World-Wide—The Renunciation of War "as an Instrument of Policy"—Fifty-Nine Nations Sign It—The Pact Supplementary to the League of Nations.

THE FOUR-POWER PACT OF 1933.—Russian Pacts of Non-Aggression, 1933.

THE PAN-AMERICAN UNION.—The Americas a Peaceful Area—Pan-American Congresses—Pan-American Peace Conference, 1929.

THE GENEVA AND LONDON ARMS CONFERENCES.—Failure of the Geneva Conference, 1927—Partial Success of the London Conference, 1930—Preparation for World Arms Conference, 1932—Germany's Demand for Armament—Disarmament and War Debts.

SUMMARY.—Survey of Existing Agencies of Peace—The Institute of Pacific Relations—The Imperial Conferences—The Imperial Economic Conference of 1932—The World Economic Conference of 1933.

One of the most outstanding features of world affairs since the Great War has been the increase of agencies working towards permanent peace among civilized nations. The peace movement is startlingly and shamefully recent. Continual improvement in the instruments of war have been made since times before history began. The growth of Christianity has been unable to prevent it. Philosophers in the quiet of their libraries have dreamed of universal peace, and poets have descried, far in the future, "the parliament of man, the federation of the world," but there

have been, until recent times, no courts where nations could meet to settle their differences without the shedding of human blood.

The Working of the League of Nations

Foremost of all modern agencies of world peace is the League of Nations itself. The Covenant of the League is virtually a general pact of peace. It was written into the various Peace Treaties framed at the Peace Conference, and the several Peace Pacts signed since that time are merely supplementary to it.

The League itself is the most active of all instruments of peace. Treaties are written documents; they are drawn up, signed, and then stowed away safely in government vaults, but delegates of the League come together every year to discuss the world's affairs face to face in the Assembly Hall at Geneva. At first there were only 42 members; this number has since increased to 54 in 1928, and to 57 in 1933. The most important non-member is the United States, and even its Government co-operates willingly and generously. Soviet Russia is not a member, but co-operates in health work and certain labour problems. The other non-members are Afghanistan, Saudi Arabia, Brazil (withdrew 1928), Ecuador and Egypt. Japan resigned in March, and Germany in October, 1933, but these resignations do not become effective for two years.

The League has already abolished certain evils of diplomacy as it was practised before the War. For example, it would now be considered inexcusable for envoys to meet unknown and unseen in some royal palace and contrive secret alliances. The deliberations of the Assembly are matters of public knowledge. Open agreements, openly arrived at, have almost become a law of nations. If nothing else had been accomplished, this alone would justify the existence of the League.

The 57 member nations are as follows:

Albania	Germany (rsgd.)	Nicaragua
Argentina	Great Britain	Norway
Australia	Greece	Panama
Austria	Guatemala	Paraguay
Belgium	Haiti	Persia
Bolivia	Honduras	Peru
Bulgaria	Hungary	Poland
Canada	India	Portugal
Chili	Iraq	Rumania
China	Irish Free State	El Salvador
Colombia	Italy	Siam
Cuba	Japan (rsgd.)	South Africa
Czechoslovakia	Latvia	Spain
Denmark	Liberia	Sweden
Dominican Republic	Lithuania	Switzerland
Estonia	Luxemburg	Turkey
Ethiopia	Mexico	Uruguay
Finland	Netherlands	Venezuela
France	New Zealand	Yugoslavia

The League has, however, achieved much more than this. In 1920 it settled satisfactorily a controversy between Sweden and Finland about the ownership of certain islands. It failed to decide a dispute between Lithuania and Poland over the city of Vilna in 1922, but it succeeded in making peace between Italy and Greece in 1923 (the affair of Corfu). Although it failed to prevent war between Greece and Turkey in 1922, it did prevent a conflict between Greece and Bulgaria in 1925. It also performed a service to mankind by assisting 1,500,000 Greek refugees, expelled from Asia Minor by the Turks, to find new homes and occupations in the home-land.

Because of a certain frailty of human nature, of course,

any mistakes or failures of the League have more news value than its genuine services. Such was its lack of success in halting the occupation of Manchuria by Japan in 1931. The procedure followed in this instance was as follows: in September, 1931, as soon as Japanese troops began to pour into Manchuria, China laid a complaint before the Council of the League, which happened to be in session; the Japanese delegate was present. By mutual consent a commission of five men was sent to Manchuria to investigate the facts and make a report; it was composed of the Earl of Lytton, chairman, and one each from Italy, France, Germany and the United States. The Commission visited Manchuria and published the "Lytton Report". This laid the responsibility upon Japan of not exhausting the means of peaceful settlement, for taking military steps that could not "be regarded as measures of legitimate self-defense", and for setting up the Manchukuo Government, "which disregards the wishes of the people of Manchuria".

This Report, including practical suggestions, was adopted by the Assembly of the League in February, 1933, Mr. Matsuoka, the chief Japanese delegate, made a dramatic speech in defence of his home government, and then a dramatic exit from the Hall; this was world news. It meant that Japan defied the League. She denies that the present Chinese Government is capable of controlling the central provinces, let alone Manchuria. She denies that the term "sovereignty of China" has any meaning, but she never raised this objection when she signed the Nine-Power Treaty of 1922 (page 780), by which she undertook to respect the "sovereignty of China".

If in this instance it be insisted that the League has failed it must be borne in mind that Japan is the most audacious of the nations to-day. The League, at least, has shown no lack of promptness, firmness and courage in publishing the facts to the world and in censuring the offending nation before the bar of public opinion.

The Working of the World Court

The World Court, more correctly styled the Permanent Court of International Justice, was less of an innovation than the League of Nations. During the nineteenth century no fewer than 136 misunderstandings between nations had been healed by boards of arbitrators without recourse to arms; this method had been particularly successful in disputes between Great Britain and the United States, in which the Dominion of Canada was several times concerned. Out of a Peace Conference called to meet at The Hague in Holland by the Czar Nicholas II in 1899 arose the Permanent Court of International Arbitration. Mr. Andrew Carnegie generously contributed funds to erect a suitable building for its use.

The World Court began its session in this building in 1922. During the following six years it rendered decisions in ten disputes that under other circumstances might have caused wars. It rendered advisory opinions in thirteen others, and of the total number of twenty-three decisions none was rejected. By the end of its tenth year the total number of decisions rendered was thirty-eight, and all were received as final. Nevertheless, certain nations remain shyer of the Court than of the League. Only 45 have become members. On the other hand, the United States, which will not join the League, has signified its willingness to join the Court upon certain conditions (1929).

The Reduction of Armaments

The Covenant of the League of Nations required only a general approval of the reduction of armaments. Article 8 contains the following clause:

> "The Members of the League recognize that the maintenance of peace requires the reduction of national armaments to the lowest point consistent with national safety and the enforcement by common action of international obligations."

The restrictions of the Peace Treaties applied only to the defeated countries, such as Germany and Austria. This was

perhaps as much as could be agreed upon at the time, but it left much to be desired. It remained for the nations to accomplish gradually what it was impossible to do all at once.

For a number of reasons it was logical for the United States to make the first move in this matter. Having declined to enter the League of Nations, the country was neither bound nor protected by the pledges which the subscribing countries had exchanged. For the time being, of course, it was certain that the Atlantic would be peaceful, but it was different on the side of the Pacific. The Balance of Power had been upset by the Great War, and something had to be devised to take its place. The Japanese were at home in their island empire while other Powers possessed only colonies in those waters. Would the Japanese, eager and ready for expansion, agree to leave unmolested the Philippines, French Indo-China, New Zealand, Australia and other pre-empted islands in the far Pacific? If she respected the rights of all the foreign powers concerned, would she also agree to respect the wavering sovereignty of China? These were questions calling for an open declaration of intention.

The Washington Arms Conference

To secure the assurances desired, and also to make the position of the United States clear before the world, President Harding invited the attendance of eight nations at a conference in Washington in 1921. It is commonly called the Washington Arms Conference, but it must be remembered that it was also a Peace Conference so far as the affairs of the Pacific were concerned. It was a logical sequel of the Paris Peace Conference, the Peace Treaties, and the establishment of the League of Nations. The nations participating were those which are chiefly concerned with naval armaments and the affairs of the Far

East, except Soviet Russia; namely, Great Britain, Japan, France, Italy, Portugal, Holland, Belgium and China.

The first fruit of the Conference was a Five-Power Treaty by which the United States, Great Britain, Japan, France and Italy agreed to scrap some sixty-eight battleships and, after a ten years' building holiday, limit their tonnage in the ratio of 5:5:3; the quota of France and Italy was to be 1⅔. This signified that Great Britain voluntarily consented to share to a certain degree with the United States, her own offspring, the dominion of the seas. Upon the limitation of cruisers and submarines there was no agreement reached, but the use of the latter for destroying merchant vessels was renounced by the contracting parties. It was also agreed not to have recourse to the use of poison gases.

Equally important were the arrangements arrived at in the interests of peace in the Far East. All the nations represented framed a Nine-Power Treaty guaranteeing China against loss of territory at the hands of outside Powers, and promising respect for her sovereign rights in general. This was welcomed at the time as signifying a definite end of the policy of the Partition of China. China was at last to be left free, to a certain degree at least, to work out her own destiny as best she could. Japan consented to surrender the German concession on the Shantung Peninsula, which she had captured early in the Great War. This withdrawal seemed the less humiliating because Great Britain agreed to give up the neighbouring Weihaiwei. Lastly, all the nations concerned agreed to approve of the "open door" policy in Chinese trade, which meant that no country should seek for privileges denied to others.

Another forward step taken at this Conference was to replace the old Anglo-Japanese Alliance, which was never pleasing to Canada or Australia, by a Four-Power Treaty, to which the United States, Great Britain, France and Japan were the contracting parties. This provided that

these countries should respect the island possessions of one another in the Pacific, which means that the Philippines, New Zealand, Australia, and the Hawaiian Islands are assured of their safety. In addition the powers pledged themselves not to enlarge or strengthen their fortifications in the Pacific, though from this agreement the Hawaiian Islands and Japan itself are exempted.

It has already been explained (page 712) how the Japanese have contrived to evade the performance of the spirit of their pledges, though keeping within the letter, but for all that, the Washington Conference was not only a great benefit to China; it also accomplished something to assure the continuance of peace in a very dangerous area. It was a genuine step in the direction of world peace.

The Locarno or Rhineland Pact

After the peace of the Pacific was assured for ten years or longer, because certain of the agreements were to run at least for that period, the thoughts of statesmen turned to that ancient battle-ground of Europe, the Rhine valley. Accordingly, in 1925, representatives of Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, and other countries came together at Locarno in Switzerland. As is usual at such conferences, a number of treaties were made, though all looked towards the same purpose. On the one hand the old enemies, France and Germany, pledged themselves to submit to arbitration any differences that might prove insoluble by negotiation; and on the other hand, Great Britain and Italy pledged themselves to come to the aid of Germany if attacked by France and to come to the aid of France if attacked by Germany. These mutual pledges were intended to guarantee the safety of the long disputed provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. This arrangement is sometimes called the Rhineland Pact.

In addition, all the contracting parties agreed to stand by the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles so far as it

affected the Rhine valley. This was aimed to protect Belgium as well as other affected districts. Germany was admitted to membership in the League of Nations the following year, 1926, whereupon the provisions of the Locarno Pact came into force.

The Briand-Kellogg Pact

The two above-mentioned groups of treaties, made at Washington and Locarno respectively, were intended to make war more and more unnecessary or impossible in certain defined areas, the far Pacific and western Europe. They were followed by the adoption of another pact which affected the whole world, namely, the Briand-Kellogg Pact, or Paris Pact, of 1928. It came into force in 1929.

It had its origin in a casual proposal made in 1927 by the French statesman Aristide Briand to renounce war "as an instrument of policy". This automatically received much publicity and was taken up by Frank B. Kellogg, at that time the American Secretary of State. After much discussion and correspondence a singularly brief document was drawn up and submitted to the nations of the whole world in Paris in 1928. Fifteen nations pledged themselves thereby to renounce war in their relations with one another, and to seek the solution of their differences by peaceful means. The language of the Pact still leaves room for "defensive wars" but, if the contracting parties keep their promises, there will be no wars of any kind. Fifty-nine of the sixty-five nations of the world had signed the Paris Pact by November 1, 1931. Argentina and Brazil had not done so.

In the Pact of Paris there was no need to provide special machinery for settling disputes between nations, because the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague is always available, and the same is true of the Permanent Court of International Justice, which holds regular sessions in the

same building. It follows that the Paris Pact is also supplementary to the League of Nations. It is a part of that elaborate structure for the preservation of world peace which has been steadily rising since the Great War. After thousands of years of armed strife it was not to be expected that the sons of men could turn to the ways of peace in a single day. The plans of the League of Nations have consistently been framed only to "secure the greatest degree of co-operation possible at any given moment".

The Four-Power Pact of 1933

The world-wide depression of business, which began soon after the signing of the Kellogg-Briand or Paris Peace Pact, gradually increased the fears and distresses of the peoples of Central Europe. The country least prepared to weather this storm was Germany, and the truculent Adolf Hitler became practical dictator of the realm by an Enabling Act of March, 1933. His threatening speeches caused widespread uneasiness, and the necessity became very urgent of securing fresh assurances of peace. These were very happily obtained, chiefly through the agency of Ramsay MacDonald, Prime Minister of Great Britain, ably and enthusiastically aided by Benito Mussolini. The outcome was a Four-Power Pact signed June 7, by Great Britain, France, Germany and Italy. The four governments pledged themselves "to pursue within the framework of the League of Nations a policy of effective co-operation between all powers with a view to the maintenance of peace." They also undertook to promote the success of the Disarmament Conference and the economic restoration of Europe.

This pact was regarded with fond satisfaction by all friends of peace, but subsequent events belied their hopes. The World Economic Conference, which assembled in Londone before the end of the same month, proved to be a grave disappointment. The Disarmament Conference,

which followed in October, was wrecked at the outset by certain blundering, which led to Germany's withdrawal both from the Conference and from the League of Nations. Further parleys for the year 1933 were abandoned.

Russian Pacts of Non-Aggression, 1933

The public disappointment over the failure of the World Economic Conference of 1933 was counterbalanced to some extent by the friendly activities of Maxim Litvinoff, Soviet Russia's Commissar for Foreign Affairs. He spent his time in London seeking pledges of peace from Russia's nearest neighbours. According to the agreements that he secured there will be no acts of aggression between Russia and Estonia, Latvia, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Rumania or Turkey. Similar agreements were already in force between Russia and four other countries, Finland, Lithuania, Germany and France. To safeguard the peace of the frontier in Central Asia pacts were signed with Persia and Afghanistan. These are thirteen nations in all that have exchanged with Russia assurances of non-aggression. The far-eastern situation is not so satisfactory. Japan has crowded Russia out of Manchuria, and could easily cut the Trans-Siberian Railroad that runs along the northern border of that province to Vladivostok. In brief, the peace of Asia is much more uncertain than that of Europe.

Russia's quest of peace seems to admit rather pointedly that the activity of the notorious Third International (page 647) has become less important than the development of domestic industry and agriculture. The project of turning hundreds of thousands of peasants into factory workers has proved to be more costly and tedious than was anticipated. Russia needs all her money for education and new machinery. This economic need may foster a friendlier feeling toward the rest of the world.

The Pan-American Union

The assurances of world peace which have been so far mentioned did not specifically cover the Western Hemisphere. This has been an extremely peaceful area ever since the Napoleonic era. The United States and Canada have long maintained neither ship nor soldier to defend their boundaries against each other. Latin-America has also been relatively quiet. There was a War of the Pacific between Chili and Peru over the disputed Tacna district in 1879, which left a legacy of bad feeling, but a final solution without further recourse to arms was reached in 1928. Paraguay and Bolivia were at the time of this writing still warring over the Chaco district. These differences, however, although regrettable, are very local.

All the American countries have much in common: in the first place, by the operation of the Monroe Doctrine they form a closed area, immune from all such schemes of colonization as the European Powers have carried out in Africa and Asia; in the second place, the United States and all the Latin-American countries are republics with a similar pattern of government. It is natural, therefore, that they should be drawn together, and this occurred for the first time in 1889, when a Pan-American Congress met in Washington. The seat designated for a delegate from Canada was not occupied. The Government declined to participate, on the grounds that the Dominion was not free to enter into international agreements. This fact has been altered with the attainment of Dominion Status, and it is doubtful if sufficient reason can now be given for her lack of representation.

Subsequent conferences have since been held in Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, and elsewhere. At the sixth, which took place in Havana in 1928, President Coolidge of the United States in person made the following declaration: "All the nations here represented stand on an exact footing

of equality." The seventh conference met in Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933.

In pursuance of plans made at the Havana conference a sort of Pan-American Peace Conference met at Washington the following year, where nineteen treaties of arbitration were drawn up, "the most advanced ever adopted by the nations of the world," according to Secretary Kellogg. There are now a Pan-American Union and also a Pan-American Sanitary Bureau, with offices in Washington. The sanitary Bureau interests itself in the control of tropical diseases, which are a common menace of the United States and all countries that have possessions near the equator.

The Geneva and London Arms Conferences

In all endeavours to promote the cause of peace it has been found easier to secure promises to renounce war than to effect actual reductions of armament. In 1927 delegates from Great Britain, Japan and the United States met at Geneva with a view to make further reductions in navies, but parted without accomplishing anything. In January, 1930, a similar meeting was held in London, with France and Italy also represented. This resulted in a Five-Power Treaty. It was not found possible to limit the navies of the latter two, because France declared her need of a fleet equal to that of Italy in the Mediterranean, and, besides this, a generous quota of war vessels for her colonial empire. The United States, Great Britain and Japan endorsed their former agreement to preserve a 5:5:3 ratio in large vessels of war, and to lay down the keels of no new ones before 1936.

Efforts to increase the assurances of world peace were by no means abandoned on account of the failure of the Geneva Conference in 1927 and the disappointing outcome of the London Conference in 1930. Preparations for a World Disarmament Conference were being made in 1932 by a "steering committee" in Geneva. In September a crisis

in these preparations was reached when Germany unfortunately informed the chairman that she declined to send delegates; this action was intended to enforce her demand for the privilege of arming herself equally with other States. Hard upon this news came the announcement that Soviet Russia would support Germany's claim by the same procedure, refusal to participate. This moved the chairman, Mr. Arthur Henderson, to make the following declaration:

> Nearly eight months after we first started our sessions the Governments are still struggling in a morass of economic and financial difficulties. Is it right to ask the people of the world to continue the burden of armaments? Let's start afresh on a new road. Our arguments for disarmament are now stronger than ever.

It would certainly be much better for all nations to make drastic reductions in armaments than for Germany to make a large increase. If the general reduction could only be brought about, it is possible that the United States might relax her demands for the payment of War Debts. With both War Debts and Reparations out of the way the nations would have all their resources available for their economic ills. The Disarmament Conference was due to reassemble at Geneva in October, 1933. It was wrecked at the outset by certain blundering, which led to Germany's withdrawal, not only from the Conference, but also from the League.

Summary

It is fitting at this point to summarize the agencies for world peace now existing. The American arbitration treaties embrace the whole of the western hemisphere except Canada and Newfoundland, which fall in another category, the British Commonwealth of Nations. The Four-Power and Nine-Power Treaties cover the Far East. The Locarno or Rhineland Pact protects the once dangerous strip between France and Germany. The Four-Power Pact of 1933 guarantees the peace of Europe for ten years. The Russian pacts of 1933 ensure quiet on the whole frontier

from the Baltic Sea to Central Asia. Over all is the League of Nations and Permanent Courts of International Arbitration and Justice sitting at The Hague. Naval armaments are partially limited by the terms of the Washington and London Conferences.

An informal agency of international peace and good-will consists in the Institute of Pacific Relations, which is attended by voluntary delegates from many countries of America, Europe and Asia. It is tied up with no governments, and its purpose is merely the frank, unrestrained and impartial discussion of matters concerning the Far East. It has met twice in Honolulu, 1925 and 1927, more recently at Kyoto in Japan, 1929, and at Banff in Canada, 1933. It has already resulted in a more exact and wider knowledge of the problems of the Pacific.

To all the above mentioned agencies should be added the Imperial Conferences of the British Commonwealth of Nations, which meet in London. This far-flung Commonwealth has no need of arbitration treaties among its members, although it is not by any means composed of English-speaking people alone. There are upwards of two million French in Canada. There are tens of thousands of Dutch in South Africa. There are more than three hundred millions of Moslems and Hindus in India. Its members co-operate voluntarily, and the more they co-operate the more assurance there is of world peace.

The Imperial Economic Conference which met in Ottawa in July and August, 1932, has already been mentioned. It was attended by delegates from all British countries, and was watched with close interest by all nations. Shortly afterwards intimation was given by the League of Nations of a World Monetary and Economic Conference to meet in London in June, 1933. Never before was it possible to make such a concerted effort to cure the world's ills. Unfortuately, this Conference proved to be untimely. It followed hard upon a financial crisis in the United States, which pre-

vented that country from co-operating to the degree that had been promised and expected. This did not mean that the nations might not succeed at some later time in taking common action for the advantage of all. Better success attended a Wheat Conference, which followed. Chiefly through the instrumentality of the Hon. R. B. Bennett. Premier of Canada, an agreement was reached by which the principal wheat-producing countries pledged themselves to limit their exports to fixed quotas for the space of a year. It was also agreed to diminish production by fifteen per cent. Canada's export quota was fixed at 200,000,000 bushels, the largest of all.

At the close of 1933, with Germany and Japan at odds with the League, the outlook for world peace seemed to be rather beclouded, although there was no relaxation of efforts to secure peace. There was danger that the League might be partly replaced by regional groups, which would leave only scientific, cultural and humanitarian interests to Geneva. Japan, for example, was proposing a minor league of powers concerned with the affairs of the Far East, in which, of course, she would be all-powerful. To consent to this would be equivalent to surrendering all the gains thus far made. It would be turning back the clock. The most stubborn obstacle to peace is no doubt the unrestricted manufacture of guns and explosives. So long as human beings are permitted by the nations to accumulate huge riches out of the collective murder that is called war, the attainment of peace will be postponed. The guilt lies chiefly with the so-called Christian peoples, whose factories create nine-tenths of the instruments of destruction. The remedy lies with their governments, which have the power at any time to set drastic limits to production.

STUDY HELPS

Very few books are written from the point of view of World History, which is the story, not of nations alone, but of mankind. *The Outline of History* by H. G. Wells maintains the point of view, but is rather unorthodox and too long and difficult for pupils of high school age. The following list will prove useful, although numerous other titles will be mentioned in the references: J. H. Breasted, *Ancient Times;* N. W. DeWitt, *Ancient History* (both covering the Near East and Europe); Botsford and Botsford, *A Source Book of Ancient History;* Hayes and Moon, *Ancient and Medieval History;* J. H. Robinson, *Readings in European History* (from the breaking up of the Roman Empire to the Protestant Revolt); Robinson and Beard, *History of Europe, Our Own Times;* also *Readings in Modern European History;* W. S. Wallace, *A New History of Great Britain and Canada* (topical arrangement); Vincent A. Smith, *The Oxford Student's History of India;* E. T. Williams, *A Short History of China;* H. H. Gowen, *An Outline History of Japan;* W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American Nations;* John S. Bassett, *A Short History of the United States;* D. S. Muzzey, *An American History;* Eduard Fueter, *World History,* 1815-1920 (especially good); Raymond Buell, *Europe, A History of Ten Years* (1918-1928); T. S. Schapiro, *Modern and Contemporary European History* (1815-1930); W. C. Langsam, *Europe Since 1914* (up-to-date, 1933).

CHAPTER I

EARLIEST MAN

Questions: 1. Give one reason for believing the earth to be extremely old. 2. Make a list of living creatures in the order in which they seem to have come into existence. 3. Describe the features of the Neanderthal type of man. 4. Mention some of the animals painted by the Cromagnon men on the walls of caves. 5. Describe the tools of the Neolithic or New Stone Age. 6. How was bread baked by women of the Neolithic Age? 7. What is bronze? 8. Suggest one way in which the use of copper may have begun.

References: M. and C. H. B. Quennell, *Everyday Life in Prehistoric Times;* D. A. MacKenzie, *Footprints of Early Man;* Breasted, *Ancient Times,* I; M. C. Burkitt, *Our Forerunners,* III, IX and X; H. F. Osborn, *Men of the Old Stone Age* (illustrated); G. G. MacCurdy, *Human Origins;* J. L. Myers, *Dawn of History;* S. J. Sollas, *Ancient Hunters;* Wells-Carter, *A Short History of Mankind* (elementary); Peake and Fleure, *Hunters and Artists; Peasants and Potters; The Steppe and the Sown;* A. Mosso, *The Dawn of Mediterranean Civilization;* J. de Morgan, *Prehistoric Man.*

CHAPTER II

THE NEW STONE AGE IN AMERICA

Questions: 1. If the use of bronze began in Europe 3000 B.C., how many years were the American Indians behind Europeans in respect of progress when Columbus discovered America? 2. Cite examples of the skill of American Indians. 3. Describe the process of making an arrow-head. Show the

position of the hands in the process of chipping. 4. Explain the difference between "chipping" and "crumbling". 5. Describe obsidian and its uses. 6. What difference has it made to human progress that corn was planted in hills and wheat was sown by broadcasting? 7. Make a list from the map, page 20, of the Natural Food Areas of North America. 8. What are "kitchen middens" and what is learned from them? 9. Write a paragraph on the civilization of the Incas. 10. Explain the terms "animism" and "fetishism". 11. Cite two or three survivals of the religion of the Ages of Stone.

References: W. H. HOLMES, *Handbook of Aboriginal American Antiquities* (Bulletin 60, Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology), XXVIII-XXXVI (illustrated); CLARK WISSLER, *The American Indian* (illustrated) I, III-VII; H. J. SPINDEN, *Ancient Civilizations of Mexico and Central America;* Encyclopaedia Britannica, 16, 503-516; L. SPENCE, *Civilization of Ancient Mexico;* DIAMOND JENNESS, *The Indians of Canada.*

CHAPTER III

THE RACES OF MANKIND

Questions: 1. Describe the mountain system of Asia (map p. 33) and contrast it with that of North America. 2. Make a list of modern countries where the Brown Men of prehistoric times flourished. 3. Name three practices that characterized the Brown Men. 4. Locate the home-lands of the fair-haired white races. Describe the customs of an Indo-European household. 5. Locate the home-land of the Mongolian races. 6. Describe the physical features of the Yellow Men. 7. With which of the three races has the American Indian closest affinities?

References: WELLS, *The Outline of History,* XII; A. C. HADDON, *The Races of Man and their Distribution;* W. Z. RIPLEY, *The Races of Europe* (illustrated), IX-X, XIV-XV; DENT'S Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia, Races 36; E. O. JAMES, *An Introduction to Anthropology.*

CHAPTER IV

THE GREAT RIVERS OF HISTORY

Questions: 1. State the general direction of the drift of populations in prehistoric and ancient times. 2. Name the four great river systems of the Eastern Hemisphere. 3. Locate in a general way the Wheat Area, the Rice Area and the Horse and Cattle Area. 4. Suggest two reasons why the plough was developed in the Eastern Hemisphere rather than in America. 5. What is the limit of the size of a village among hunting tribes? What difference does agriculture make in human habits? 6. Cite evidence from the Bible that the priests in Egypt had lands and were powerful. 7. Cite two examples of priestly castes. 8. Cite an example of a temple-city. 9. Why should cities have grown up around palaces?

References: BREASTED, *Ancient Times,* 35-38, 105-107; PEAKE AND FLEURE, *Priests and Kings; The Way of the Sea;* E. BEVAN, *The Land of the Two Rivers;* E. C. SEMPLE, *The Geography of the Mediterranean Region, Its Relation to Ancient History,* especially Part III; E. T. WILLIAMS, *A Short History of China,* 14-16, 23; CARL CROW, *Handbook for China,* Index.

CHAPTER V

ANCIENT EMPIRES OF THE NEAR EAST

Questions: 1. Give a reason for beginning the study of Ancient History with Mesopotamia rather than with India or China. 2. Trace the shape of the Fertile Crescent on the map, p. 49, and identify the locations of seven cities often mentioned in the Bible. 3. Define the word "Mesopotamia". 4. Describe a letter written in cuneiform script. 7. Distinguish between a kingdom and an empire. Cite an example of a living king who is also emperor. 8. Describe the methods of an ancient conqueror in Mesopotamia. 9. Explain how it was that the Egyptians were able to conquer lands so far distant as Mesopotamia. 10. State the contribution of the Hittites to civilization. 11. Describe an army of the Assyrians when fully equipped. 12. Name the virtues and vices of the Assyrians. 13. Name a study developed by the Chaldeans. 14. Name the kings who built Nineveh and Babylon (with its Hanging Gardens) respectively.

References: BREASTED, *Ancient Times*, Chapters IV-V; HAYES AND MOON, *Ancient and Medieval History*, III; A. T. E. OLMSTED, *History of Assyria;* C. L. WOOLLEY, *The Sumerians; The Excavations at Ur and the Hebrew Records; Dead Towns and Living Men; Digging up the Past;* J. GARSTANG, *The Hittite Empire;* P. HANDCOCK, *The Code of Hammurabi;* R. L. OTTLEY, *A Short History of the Hebrews to the Roman Period;* M. I. ROSTOVTZEFF, *A History of the Ancient World*, VOL. I, I-XI.

CHAPTER VI

THE LAND OF EGYPT

Questions: 1. Describe the conditions that made of the lower course of the Nile a Natural Food Area. 2. Describe a Pharaoh's palace. 3. State the duties of peasants to their masters or the Pharaoh. 4. Enumerate the differences between the Asiatic horse and the African horse. 5. Describe the process of making a mummy. 6. Why was Osiris the special god of the dead? How was he addressed? 7. Name ten animals or birds revered by the Egyptians as gods. 8. Explain the significance of scarabs: Could the Egyptians be classed as animists (page 27)?

References: BREASTED, *Ancient Times*, II-III; British Museum, *Guide to the Egyptian Collections*, I, V, VII, X; A. ERMAN, *Life in Ancient Egypt;* G. MASPERO, *Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria*, I-X; J. BAIKIE, *The Life of the Ancient East.*

CHAPTER VII

ARTS AND CRAFTS IN EGYPT

Questions: 1. Describe the evolution of the ship. What improvement was made by the Phoenicians? 2. Describe the evolution of pen-and-ink writing. 3. Describe three stages in the history of the alphabet. 4. Explain the importance of the dates 776 B.C., 754 B.C., and 4241 B.C. 5. Trace the evolution of the art of the stone-mason. What suggested the use of columns with ornamented capitals? 6. Mention some employments for a painter in ancient Egypt. 7. Describe the stages in the evolution of the art of the potter. 8. Describe the making of a vessel of glass before glass-blowing was known. 9. Characterize the statues of Egyptian kings.

References: Flinders Petrie, *Arts and Crafts of Ancient Egypt* (illustrated); British Museum, *Guide to the Egyptian Collections*, iv, v, vii; Lynn Thorndike, *A Short History of Civilization*, iv.

CHAPTER VIII

AEGEAN CIVILIZATION

Questions: 1. Name the chief plants and domestic animals during the Bronze Age in Mediterranean lands. 2. From the map on p. 81 identify seven cities that were in contact with Cnossus. 3. Suggest reasons why ancient cities like Cnossus and Troy became buried? What were the building materials? 4. Relate the legend of the Minotaur in your own words. 5. Describe the trading methods of the Phoenicians.

References: Encyclopaedia Britannica, i, 209-216; J. Baikie, *Sea Kings of Crete;* also *Ancient Crete* (Peeps at many Lands); Breasted, *Ancient Times*, viii; DeWitt, *Ancient History*, v; Lynn Thorndyke, *A Short History of Civilization*, vi; G. Glotz, *Aegean Civilization;* A. R. Burn, *Minoans, Philistines and Greeks.*

CHAPTER IX

THE COMING OF THE GREEKS

Questions: 1. Describe the lands of Greece from the map p. 121. 2. Describe the warfare of Achaean kings before Troy. 3. Name the three Greek tribes and trace their migrations on the map, page 92. 4. Mention some of the articles of value in an Achaean palace. 5. Mention a dozen articles of trade among the Greeks. 6. State what is noteworthy in connection with Cyprus, Naucratis and Cyrene. 7. Explain why the Greeks settled in Sicily and southern Italy, and not in northern Italy. 8. Mention noteworthy facts concerning Syracuse, Tarentum and Corcyra (map, page 97). 9. Mention some sources of minerals and food in the ancient Greek world.

References: J. B. Bury, *A History of Greece to the Death of Alexander the Great*, 53-73, 86-116; Butcher and Lang, *The Odyssey of Homer;* T. E. Lawrence (T. E. Shaw), *The Odyssey of Homer Newly Translated into English Prose;* Lang, Leaf and Myers, *The Iliad of Homer;* A. W. Mair, *Hesiod.*

CHAPTER X

EVOLUTION OF THE GREEK CITY STATES

Questions: 1. Describe a site suitable for a Greek city-state. 2. Enumerate the causes that led to the development of a Greek city-state from one political phase to another. 3. Give a definition of "tyrant". 4. Name five elements of progress during the Age of the Tyrants. 5. Sketch the Spartan system under the heads of (*a*) training of children (*b*) law-making (*c*) commerce. 6. State what was new in the legislation of Solon. 7. Name six benefits conferred upon Athens by Pisistratus. 8. Explain the system of government based on the number ten as established by Cleisthenes. 9. State an essential difference between democratic government as practiced in Canada or the United States and as practiced in Ancient Athens. 10. Write a sentence on each of the following: Tyrtaeus, helots, Hymettus, aristocracy and ostracism.

References: BURY, *History of Greece*, III, V; W. W. FOWLER, *The City State of the Greeks and Romans;* GLOTZ, *The Greek City* (difficult); BAEDEKER'S *Greece;* MURRAY, *Greece and the Ionian Islands;* A. E. ZIMMERN, *The Greek Commonwealth;* Whibley, *Companion to Greek Studies;* EVERYMAN'S LIBRARY, *Atlas of Ancient and Classical Geography; A Smaller Classical Dictionary;* MURRAY'S *Classical Atlas;* KIEPERT'S *Atlas Antiquus;* BOTSFORD AND BOTSFORD, *A Source Book of Ancient History*, 67-151; F. M. FLING, *A Source Book of Greek History*, IV.

CHAPTER XI

THE RISE AND FALL OF GREEK STATES

Questions: 1. Count the provinces of the Persian Empire from the map on page 111. Locate Media with reference to Persia. Locate Susa with reference to Babylon, and Persepolis with reference to Susa. 2. Mention five respects in which the Persian Empire was superior to those which had preceded it. 3. Why did the opposition to the Persians signify special courage on the part of the Athenians? 4. Write two paragraphs on Themistocles (*a*) as a leader in wartime, (*b*) as a leader in peace. 5. Show why the Graeco-Persian Wars were of more consequence than the wars between Athens and Sparta. 6. Explain why the Greeks avoided winged bulls and such monstrous things in their art. 7. Sketch the evolution of the theatre. 8. Write about thirty words on each of the following: Miltiades, Aristides, the Piraeus, Thucydides, and "wisdom literature".

References: BREASTED, *Ancient Times*, VI; DEWITT, *Ancient History*, XI-XIII; XIV, XVII; BURY, *History of Greece*, VII-XII; W. S. DAVIS, *A Day in Old Athens;* GLOTZ, *Ancient Greece at Work;* T. G. TUCKER, *Life in Ancient Athens;* F. B. TARBELL, *A History of Greek Art;* British Museum, *A Guide to the Exhibition Illustrating Greek and Roman Life;* The Metropolitan Museum of Art (New York), *The Daily Life of the Greeks and Romans;* W. S. DAVIS, *A Victor of Salamis;* C. E. Robinson, *The Days of Alcibiades.*

CHAPTER XII

EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT

Questions: 1. Describe the Macedonian phalanx. 2. Trace the route of Alexander's marches on the map, page 129. Was his empire larger or smaller than the Persian Empire, page 113? 3. Name and locate the scenes of three of Alexander's victories, with dates. 4. Write a paragraph upon the effect of power and conquest upon Alexander's character. 5. Describe a Greek city of the Hellenistic Age. 6. Explain what is meant by "hellenizing." 7. State the chief differences between the doctrines of the Stoics and those of the Epicureans. 8. Write a sentence upon each of the following: Epaminondas, the Sacred Band, Sibyl and Septuagint Version.

References: DEWITT, *Ancient History*, XX-XXI; BURY'S *History of Greece*, 747-818; D. G. HOGARTH, *Philip and Alexander of Macedon;* T. R. GLOVER, *The World of the New Testament;* W. W. TARN, *Hellenistic Civilization;* E. A. GARDNER, *Greece and the Aegean* (general description).

CHAPTER XIII

RISE OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC

Questions: 1. State the limits of the dominions of the Carthaginians, the Greeks and the Etruscans in the Western Mediterranean. 2. Name

and locate the Italic tribes, map, page 136. 3. Make a list of the changes in Roman life effected by the Etruscan kings. 4. State the duties of the Roman consuls. 5. Explain the differences between the Assembly of the citizens by centuries and that by tribes. 6. State two essential differences between Roman and Greek colonies. 7. Make a list of the Roman magistracies. 8. Enumerate the steps by which Rome became the mistress of Italy. 9. Name three important respects in which the Romans resembled the Spartans.

References: DEWITT, *Ancient History*, 154-191; T. FRANK, *A History of Rome*, 1-75; A. E. R. BOAK, *A History of Rome*, 1-66; W. S. DAVIS, *Readings in Ancient History*, II; D. C. MUNRO, *Source Book of Roman History*, 1-78; ROSTOVTZEFF, *History of the Ancient World*, II, 47-54; LÉON HOMO, *Primitive Italy and the Beginnings of Roman Imperialism*, 245-296.

CHAPTER XIV

THE FIRST ROMAN PROVINCES

Questions: 1. Compare the resources of the Romans and the Carthaginians. 2. How long did the First Punic War last? What inferences might be drawn? 3. State the dilemma that faced the Roman Senate after the First Punic War. 4. Compare Hannibal's methods of warfare with those of Alexander. 5. According to Cicero, what was the secret of Roman expansion? Illustrate your answer by two examples. 6. Write a paragraph on the Roman character, mentioning specific virtues (page 139). 7. Make a list of the first nine Roman provinces. 8. Name three ways in which wealthy Romans employed their capital. 9. Explain the increase of Roman food-supply after the Punic wars. 10. Write about twenty words on each of the following: gladiators, "bread and circuses", aqueducts, the Queen of Highways, Cannae, Hamilcar and denarius.

References: DEWITT, *Ancient History*, 192-222; FRANK, *A History of Rome*, 94-193; BOAK, *A History of Rome*, 67-124; BOTSFORD AND BOTSFORD, *A Source Book of Ancient History*, XXXV; MUNRO, *A Source Book of Roman History*, VI-VII; PLUTARCH'S *Lives*, Fabius Maximus, Cato the Elder; G. P. BAKER, *Hannibal;* B. H. L. HART, *A Greater than Napoleon, Scipio Africanus.*

CHAPTER XV

FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE

Questions: 1. State some of the principles by which the Roman Senate was guided in administering domestic and foreign affairs. 2. Explain the decline of democracy during the Punic Wars. 3. Give reasons for the failure of the Gracchi. 4. Mention three genuine reforms of Sulla. 5. State the claims of Pompey and Caesar to be called empire-builders. 6. Explain the steps by which Julius Caesar's grand-nephew made good his claim to be his heir. 7. Write about thirty words on each of the following: proscription, Jugurtha, Teutones, Mithradates and Caesar's Monarchy.

References: DEWITT, *Ancient History*, 223-251; FRANK, *A History of Rome*, 194-313; BOAK, *A History of Rome*, 125-201; BOTSFORD AND BOTSFORD, *A Source Book of Ancient History*, XXXVI; MUNRO, *A Source Book of Roman History*, VIII; PLUTARCH'S *Lives*, the Gracchi, Marius, Sulla, Pompey and Caesar; W. W. FOWLER, *Julius Caesar;* also *Social Life at Rome in the Time of Cicero;* British Museum, *A Guide to the Exhibition Illustrating Greek and*

Roman Life; The Metropolitan Museum of Art (New York), *The Daily Life of the Greeks and Romans;* Fiction: W. MELVILLE, *The Gladiators;* W. S. DAVIS, *A Friend of Caesar.*

CHAPTER XVI

TWO CENTURIES OF EMPIRE, 27 B.C. - 180 A.D.

Questions: 1. Cite examples of the caution of Augustus Caesar in his conduct as the head of the Empire. 2. Explain the meanings of the titles Princeps, Augustus and Imperator. 3. Describe a typical Roman provincial town. 4. Summarize the plans of Augustus for the beautification of Rome. 5. Describe the part played by the poets in the plans of Augustus. 6. Explain the part played by slaves and freedmen in the administration of the Empire. 7. Make a list with dates of the successors of Augustus of his own family. 8. Supplement the above list by adding the names of all emperors down to 180 A.D. 9. Mention some good service performed by each emperor from Nerva to Marcus Aurelius. 10. Mention three weaknesses of the Roman Empire arising out of geographical factors; map, pages 176-177.

References: DEWITT, *Ancient History,* 252-287; FRANK, *A History of Rome,* 332-354, 406-461, 473-500; BOAK, *A History of Rome,* 205-313; F. B. MARSH, *The Founding of the Roman Empire;* BOTSFORD AND BOTSFORD, *A Source Book of Ancient History,* XXXVIII-XL; MUNRO, *A Source Book of Roman History,* IX; H. S. JONES, *Companion to Roman History;* W. S. DAVIS, *An Outline History of the Roman Empire* (44 B.C. to 378 A.D.); S. DILL, *Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius;* FRANK, *An Economic History of Rome,* XVIII; M. P. CHARLESWORTH, *Trade Routes and Commerce of the Roman Empire;* W. S. DAVIS, *A Day in Old Rome;* MAU-KELSEY, *Pompeii, Its Life and Art;* DEWITT, *Virgil's Biographia Litteraria,* XVI; ROSTOVTZEFF, *Caravan Cities,* 1-35; BULWER-LYTTON, *Last Days of Pompeii;* HENRYK SIENKIEWICZ, *Quo Vadis?* L. WALLACE, *Ben Hur.*

CHAPTER XVII

THE DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE AND THE GROWTH OF THE CHURCH

Questions: 1. Quote three reasons for the decline of Roman power and suggest three others. 2. Assign the chief reason for the decrease of the Roman-born. 3. What were Diocletian's reasons for redividing the Empire by north and south lines? 4. State the two claims of Constantine to a prominent place in World History. 5. Mention two advantages of the site of Constantinople. Why was it able to survive longer than Rome? 6. Mention seven essentials of religion as understood by Christians that were unknown to the Romans. 7. Explain how the Romans first became acquainted with the saviour-idea, prophecy, resurrection, and the Sabbath. 8. Sketch the history of the Bible among the early Christians. 9. Explain the cult of martyrdom in the early church. 10. Mention the two events of the early fourth century that particularly increased the prestige of the Pope.

References: DEWITT, *Ancient History,* 288-297; FRANK, *A History of Rome,* 528-564; *The Student's Gibbon,* 92-97, 116-124, 125-132; BOAK, *A History of Rome,* 317-367; W. W. FOWLER, *The Religious Experience of the Roman People;* S. DILL, *Roman Society in the Last Century of the Western Empire;* PAUL-LOUIS, *Ancient Rome at Work, An Economic History of Rome from the Origins to the Empire,* 213-322; A. E. ARCHER, *From Constantine to*

Bismarck, An Introductory Course of European and General History for Middle Forms (in biographical form); C. KINGSLEY, *Hypatia.*

CHAPTER XVIII

THE ANCIENT HISTORY OF INDIA

Questions: 1. Mention two general differences between India and Mesopotamia. 2. Explain the fourfold division of the people under Aryan rule. 3. Name four prominent traits of the Aryans. 4. Cite three similarities between Buddhism and Christianity. 5. Mention some essential ideas of Christianity that are lacking in Buddhism. 6. What effect had Alexander's invasion of India upon Buddhism? 7. Mention something particularly important about each of the following: Chandragupta, Asoka, Kanishka and Harsha. 8. Give reasons for considering Asoka the most important king of Ancient India. 9. Give two reasons for the decline of Buddhism in the country of its origin. 10. Account for the opposition of the Brahmans to Buddhism. 11. Write a note on each of the following: Rigveda, Nirvana, Sind, Megasthenes and the Eightfold Path.

References: DENT'S *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia,* Aryan Languages, 134; V. A. SMITH, *The Oxford Student's History of India,* Chapters I-VII; Encyclopaedia Britannica, *Indian and Sinhalese Art and Archaeology,* 12, 209-216; *Architecture,* pp. 220-225 (illustrated); V. A. SMITH, *The Oxford History of India.*

CHAPTER XIX

THE ANCIENT HISTORY OF CHINA

Questions: 1. Locate the original home-land of the Chinese. 2. Explain why the Chinese have been persistent colonizers; cite a modern example of their colonizing. 3. Explain the diminution in the number of horses in China since ancient times. 4. Make a list of useful trees or plants cultivated by the Chinese. 5. Give reasons for believing the deserts of Central Asia to be more extensive than in remote ages. 6. Mention some arts of the age of the Chou Dynasty. 7. Mention five classes of duties recognized by Confucius. 8. What is meant by "saving the face" in Chinese ethics? 9. Mention five virtues extolled by Confucius. 10. Explain the unusual sacredness of the burying ground among the Chinese. 11. Explain the survival of Taoism. What is there in it that appeals to the Chinese peasant. 12. Give a description of the Great Wall of China. 13. Who was it who first divided the Chinese Empire into provinces and appointed governors? 14. Describe the system of Civil Service Examination established by the Hans. 15. Explain the influence of the Han Dynasty in Western Europe. 16. Describe the contents of a Han tomb.

References: DENT'S *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia,* Northern China, 82-83, Southern, 84-85; E. T. WILLIAMS, *A Short History of China,* 1-112; especially 85-94, 96-112; L. H. D. BUXTON, *China,* IV-VIII; Encyclopaedia Britannica, *Chinese Architecture, 5,* 556-565; *Lacquer,* 20, facing 188; CARL CROW, *Handbook for China;* G. F. HUDSON, *Europe and China; a survey of their relations from the earliest times to 1800.*

CHAPTER XX

THE LEGACY OF THE ANCIENT WORLD

Questions: 1. Name the chief religions of the Eastern Hemisphere toward the close of ancient times and state which were increasing and which were decreasing and where. 2. Mention the chief language associated with each religion. 3. Make a list of articles of trade at the close of ancient times, and also their sources and destinations. 4. Account for the more rapid improvement of instruments of war than of implements of agriculture. 5. Mention objects of art that were beautifully made in Greece, Egypt or China. 6. Are men more skilful and artistic in an age of machines or in an age of handicrafts? Debate this.

References: DeWitt, *Ancient History*, 145-152, 298-301; H. W. Livingstone, *The Legacy of Greece;* C. Bailey, *The Legacy of Rome;* H. R. James, *Our Hellenic Heritage;* W. S. Davis, *The Beauty of the Purple, A Romance of Imperial Constantinople Twelve Centuries Ago.*

CHAPTER XXI

THE MIDDLE AGES—GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Questions: 1. Cite three differences between Roman and Medieval civilizations. 2. Name the three World Religions and state where each flourishes. 3. Why did the use of horses increase in the Middle Ages? 4. How did medieval emigration differ from modern emigration? 5. Why are the limits of the Middle Ages fixed at 500 and 1500 A.D.?

References: L. Thorndike, *A Short History of Civilization*, Book VI: G. G. Coulton, *The Medieval Scene;* H. O. Taylor, *Classical Heritage of the Middle Ages;* Barker and Rees, *The Making of Europe, A Geographical Treatment of the Historical Development of Europe.*

CHAPTER XXII

MASS MOVEMENTS OF EUROPEAN RACES

Questions: 1. Make a list of the Germanic tribes in the order of their migrations and locate their movements on the map (p. 222). 2. Cite five reasons why the ancient Germans feared a settled habit of life. 3. What was meant by the spring-viking and the autumn-viking? 5. Compare the habits of the Germans as described by Caesar and those of the Northmen. 6. What were the general directions of barbarian migrations in Europe (map, page 222)? 7. Where did the Slavs settle chiefly and why not elsewhere?

References: Encyclopaedia Britannica, *Goths*, 10, 549-551; *German tribes*, 10, 254-255; *Huns*, 11, 916; *The Student's Gibbon*, Index; Hayes and Moon, *Ancient and Medieval History*, xiv; D. H. Lawrence, *Movements in European History*, iv-vi; Bury, *The Invasion of Europe by the Barbarians.*

CHAPTER XXIII

MASS MOVEMENTS OF ASIATIC RACES

Questions: 1. State the differences between the so-called barbarians of Europe and the barbarians of Asia. 2. Locate the home-lands of the Huns,

Arabs and Seljuk Turks (map, page 295). 3. State the general directions of Hunnish, Arab and Turkish migrations (map. page 238). 4. Describe the tactics of the Huns in battle. 5. State the importance of the battles of Châlons and Tours. 6. Write a paragraph upon the importance of the horse to the Huns and Arabs. 7. What beliefs are common to Christianity and Islam? 8. What are the geographical limits of Mohammedanism? 9. Write a sentence of explanation on each of the following: the Kaaba, Medina, Mecca, Caliph and Koran. 10. How did the Seljuk Turks first make contact with the people of Western Europe?

References: *The Student's Gibbon;* Arabs, 471-483; Turks, XXXII; Huns, 201-202, 251-263; HAYES AND MOON, *Ancient and Medieval History,* XIV; E. HUTTON, *Attila and the Huns;* D. S. MARGOLIOUTH, *Mohammed and the Rise of Islam;* T. ARNOLD, *The Legacy of Islam;* P. COLUM (editor), *Arabian Nights.*

CHAPTER XXIV

THE BIRTH OF EUROPEAN RACES

Questions: 1. Describe the plan, defences and comforts of a Roman villa. 2. Describe the habits of the early German nobleman and his household. 3. Show how Roman slavery was displaced by serfdom. 4. Explain how the Church became a landlord and distinguish between Canon Law and Feudal Law. What was Salic Law? 5. Explain why the name Gaul was changed to France. 6. Explain the meaning and origin of the Papal States (map, p. 288). 7. Explain how the German domain of Charles the Great came to be separated from France. 8. Name two men who were crowned as Emperors by the Pope, and give dates. 9. Write a sentence of explanation on each of the following: the meaning of villein, lord and lady, the Edict of Toleration, Alcuin of York, Holy Roman Empire, and Hastings or Senlac.

References: HAYES AND MOON, *Ancient and Medieval History,* 486-495; TREVELYAN, *History of England,* 28-52; E. EMERTON, *An Introduction to the Study of the Middle Ages,* especially XIII (Charlemagne); D. H. LAWRENCE, *Movements in European History,* VII-VIII; ROBINSON, *Readings in European History,* VII-IX; S. DILL, *Roman Society in Gaul in the Merovingian Age;* J. BRYCE, *The Holy Roman Empire;* C. W. C. OMAN, *The Dark Ages,* 476-918 A.D.

CHAPTER XXV

CHRISTIANITY AND ISLAM

Questions: 1. Make a list of Christian missionaries mentioned in this chapter and of the peoples among whom they laboured. 2. Cite five differences that led to the separation of the Roman and Greek Churches. 3. Describe the organization of the Roman Catholic Church in Europe. 4. Compare the position of the Popes with that of the Caliphs. 5. Cite five similarities between medieval Christians and Moslems. 6. Explain the parallel between the Crusades and the wars between the Greeks and Persians. 7. Write a sentence on each of the following: Kiev, Rus, Glastonbury, Saladin, and the meaning of iconoclast and crusade.

References: DENT'S *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia,* Religions, 37, D. H. LAWRENCE, *Movements in European History,* VIII; HAYES AND MOON; *Ancient and Medieval History,* 645-660; Encyclopaedia Britannica, 12, 708-709, *Islam;* KENNETH BELL, *Medieval Europe, A Textbook of European History,*

1095-1254; K. Bercovici, *The Crusades;* H. Lamb, *The Crusades;* E. Baxter, *The Crusades;* Sir Walter Scott, *The Talisman.*

CHAPTER XXVI

ASIATIC DESPOTISMS

Questions: Locate on the map, page 279, Karakorum, Desert of Gobi, Cambaluc (Khanbalig or Peking), Samarkand, Bokhara and Kharesm. 2. Describe the equipment of a Mongol horseman. 3. Explain the method of hunting practised by the Mongols and its connection with war. 4. State the chief debt of Genghis Khan to the art of war as practised in China. 5. Describe the Mongol intelligence service. 6. What traits of character were common to Genghis Khan and Tamerlane? 7. State three reasons for believing that the organization of the Mongol Empire followed the Chinese rather than Persian pattern. 8. Discuss the influence of the Mongol Empire on Europe.

References: *Encyclopaedia Britannica,* 12, 1000-1001; 22, 232-233; 15, 705-707; Harold Lamb, *Genghis Khan, Emperor of all Men;* also *Tamerlane, the Earth Shaker;* J. Buchan, *Prester John.*

CHAPTER XXVII

MEDIEVAL COMMERCE

Questions: 1. Make a list of the chief articles of medieval (*a*) domestic trade (*b*) foreign trade. 2. Account for the importance of spices in the Middle Ages. 3. Enumerate the duties of an apprentice. 4. Compare a Roman and a medieval town. 5. Write a paragraph on the trade in black pepper. 6. Name and locate six Italian city-states; write a paragraph on the rivalry of Venice and Genoa and locate their trade routes (*a*) in Europe (*b*) in the Mediterranean. 7. Write a paragraph on the sea trade of the Arabs. 8. Explain the influence of Hinduism on the trade and history of India.

References: S. A. Cudmore, *History of the World's Commerce,* III-VIII; C. A. Herrick, *A History of Commerce and Industry,* VII-XII; E. Benson, *Life in a Medieval City;* H. Pirenne, *Medieval Cities, Their Origins and the Revival of Trade;* J. Finnemore, *Social Life in England,* IV-V; Encyclopaedia Britannica, 6, 108-110 (outline).

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE MIDDLE AGES IN INDIA

Questions: 1. Locate on map, page 295, Ghazni, Kandahar, Delhi; map, page 279, Hindustan, Deccan and Sind. 2. Name three kings who raided India between 647 and 1526. 3. Explain why India was oftener raided than conquered. 4. Explain why small armies of Mohammedans were able to conquer larger populations. 5. Describe a Mohammedan raid.

References: V. A. Smith, *The Oxford Student's History of India,* 88-150, especially 88-92, 97-102, General Conditions, 105-108, 111-114, 123-127, 138-141, 147.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE MIDDLE AGES IN CHINA AND JAPAN

Questions: 1. State the boundaries of the Chinese Empire at the time of its greatest extent under the Tang Dynasty; map, page 295. 2. State five

reasons for considering the reign of Kublai Khan as being remarkable. 3. Write a paragraph upon the influence of floods and famines in Chinese History. 4. Explain why the Chinese were unable to conquer Japan. 5. Explain the word Shogun and describe the government known as the Shogunate. 6. State what changes were made in the lives of the Chinese and Japanese by the introduction of Buddhism? 7. Write a sentence on each of the following: Hanlin Academy, Boddhidharma, the Oath in the Peach Orchard, the Pear Garden, Lady Wu, the Grand Canal, Kotow and daimios.

References: Dent's *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia*, China, 82-85, Japan, 88-89; E. T. Williams, *A Short History of China*, 113-195; map between 116-117; especially 122-132; 140-141; 143-148; 150-160; 167-193; Encyclopaedia Britannica, *Architecture*, 5, 556-565, Plates I-VI; H. H. Gowen, *An Outline History of Japan*, 26-34, 61-67, 78-87, 145-147, 163-173, 196-197.

CHAPTER XXX

TRAVEL IN THE MIDDLE AGES

Questions: 1. Describe an imaginary journey from London to the Holy Land by way of Venice in the Middle Ages. 2. Make a list of travellers mentioned in the text and the motives that led them to travel. 3. Enumerate some remarkable customs of the Mongols mentioned by Friar John. 4. Give five reasons why the travels of the friars should have attracted more attention than those of the Polos.

References: Dent's *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia*, 15; M. Komroff, *The Travels of Marco Polo;* also *Contemporaries of Marco Polo;* H. A. Giles, *The Travels of Fa-hsien;* Samuel Beal, *Travels of Fa-hian* (*Fa-hsien*) and *Sung-Yan* (*Yuan Cwang*), *Buddhist Pilgrims;* Encyclopaedia Britannica, under *Hsuan Tsung*, 11, 853-854; E. L. Guilford, *Travellers and Travelling in the Middle Ages;* Sir Henry Yule, *Marco Polo.*

CHAPTER XXXI

THE HARVEST OF THE MIDDLE AGES

Questions: 1. Name four languages derived from Latin. Explain why many dialects arose in Italy and France. 2. Distinguish Mystery, Miracle and Morality Plays. 3. Name three domed buildings and locate them among the illustrations. What variation of the dome was developed in the Near East? 4. Mention four points in which the Greek temple differs from the Romanesque church (pages 117 and 350). 5. Name five characteristics of Gothic architecture. 6. State two reasons to account for the peculiar characteristics of Arabic art. 7. State the uses of bell-towers and minarets.

References: Crump and Jacob, *The Legacy of the Middle Ages*, 59-121; 173-195; D. H. Lawrence, *Movements in European History*, xii-xiii.

CHAPTER XXXII

EDUCATION AND LEARNING

Questions: 1. Name six learned men of the Church who contributed to the programme of education in the early Middle Ages. 2. Name four famous universities of the Middle Ages. 3. State the meaning of the word *university*

(*a*) at Bologna (*b*) at Paris; also the meaning of *college* at Oxford and Cambridge. 4. Distinguish Roman Law, Canon Law, Feudal Law and Common Law. 5. Sketch the development of plate armour out of chain-mail armour. 6. Describe the armour and garb of a crusader. 7. Make a list of the certain or probable gifts of China to the Western World. 8. Sketch the growth of the use of gunpowder and explain why it gradually superseded archery. 9. State the ground of rivalry between the followers of Averroës and those of Thomas Aquinas.

References: Robinson, *Readings in European History*, 444-461; E. K. Rand, *Founders of the Middle Ages;* C. D. Burns, *A Short History of International Intercourse*, II-IV.

CHAPTER XXXIII

GROWTH OF NATIONAL STATES

Questions: 1. Frame a definition of a national state. 2. State the importance of the wool trade in English History. 3. Enumerate the benefits of the Norman Conquest for England. 4. State the chief provisions of Magna Carta. 5. Explain the procedure at the meetings of the first Parliaments. 6. Explain the term Three Estates in French History. 7. Compile a list of the States of Europe from the map pp. 288 and 289. Count them.

References: Philip's *New Historical Atlas for Students*, Plate 6, Introduction 4-6; W. S. Wallace, *A New History of Great Britain and Canada*, Part I, Chap. II and Part III, Chap. I; F. L. Bowman, *Britain in the Middle Ages;* Eileen Power, *Medieval People;* Keatinge and Perry, *The Middle Ages in England;* A. F. Pollard, *Evolution of Parliament.*

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE DIVISIONS OF WESTERN CHRISTENDOM

Questions: 1. Enumerate the causes of differences between national governments and the Pope. 2. Sketch the parts played in the Protestant Revolutions by John Wycliffe, John Huss, John Calvin and John Knox. 3. From the map on page 417 make a list of countries that became Lutheran. 4. Explain how Franciscans, Dominicans and Jesuits differed from one another in their objectives. 5. Quote two reasons why Roman Catholics and Protestants persecuted one another and add two other reasons. 6. Consult a good dictionary upon the meanings of nepotism, simony, excommunication, indulgences, presbyter and inquisition; learn the definitions.

References: D. H. Lawrence, *Movements in European History*, XII-XIV; Thorndyke, *A Short History of Western Civilization* XXXI-XXXVI; W. H. Hudson, *The Story of the Renaissance*, especially IV; Finnemore, *Social Life in England*, VI.

CHAPTER XXXV

THE FIRST COLONIAL EMPIRE—NEW SPAIN

Questions: 1. "History is the evolution of the unforeseen." Exemplify this statement by incidents of discovery and exploration in the New World. 2. Explain why Panama was so important in the history of Spanish colonies. 3. State the part played by each of the following in the exploration of the New World: Cortes, Balboa, Pizarro, Valdivia, Banalcazar, Queseda and

Mendoza. 4. Rehearse the legend of El Dorado. 5. Explain why Portugal failed for a long time to interest herself seriously in Brazil. 6. Describe the government of the Spanish colonies (map, page 403). 7. Make a list of plants brought to the New World by the Spaniards and a list of useful plants adopted from the Indians (page 24).

References: PHILIP'S *New Historical Atlas for Students*, 47, 48, Introduction 50-52; A. B. ARCHER, *Stories of Exploration and Discovery;* W. S. ROBERTSON, *History of the Latin-American Nations*, I-IV, especially IV.

CHAPTER XXXVI

EXTENSION OF TURKEY IN EUROPE
RESTORATION OF RUSSIA TO EUROPE

Questions: 1. Explain (*a*) the real and (*b*) the sentimental importance of the fall of Constantinople to Europe. 2. Name the lands comprised in the Ottoman Empire at the time of its greatest extent (map, p. 417). 3. Describe the government of the Ottoman Empire. 4. Describe the Mongol government of Russia; between what dates was Russia a province of the Mongol Empire?

References: PHILIP'S *New Historical Atlas for Students*, 25b, Introduction 30; S. F. PLATONOV, *History of Russia*, Part I, especially Chap. IV.

CHAPTER XXXVII

INDIA, CHINA AND JAPAN

Questions: 1. Make a list of the Mogul rulers of India from 1526 to 1707 with dates. 2. Describe the character and interests of Akbar. 3. Describe the rise and fall of a Chinese dynasty. 4. Mention some articles for which the Ming period was remarkable. 5. Enumerate the steps by which Japan became a hermit state. Name a famous hermit state of ancient times (page 139). 6. What name is given to the four towers of the Taj Mahal (page 425)? What is their use? Describe the peculiarity of the dome. What is its probable origin (page 358)?

References: India: V. A. SMITH, *Oxford Student's History of India*, 151-235, especially 151-159, 168-222, 229-231, 234-235; India: F. G. TALBOT, *Memoirs of Baber* (illustrated); LUCAS KING, *Memoirs of Babur;* E. T. WILLIAMS, *A Short History of China*, 196-221, especially 199-200, 210-216, 218-220 (large scale map in folder); Architecture, Encyclopaedia Brittanica, 5 Plates VII-VIII between 560-561; Japan: H. H. GOWEN, *An Outline History of Japan*, 198-256, especially 199-202, 212-218, 223-225, 230-239 and 244-246. Encyclopaedia Britannica, *Architecture*, 12, 954-955, Plates II, III; DICK STEUART, *The Arts and Crafts of Old Japan.*

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE GRAND MONARCHY IN FRANCE
THE SECOND COLONIAL EMPIRE—NEW FRANCE

Questions: 1. Give reasons for considering Louis XIV a fortunate monarch. 2. Write a paragraph on the faults and virtues of Louis XIV. 3. Cite three reasons for considering his example unwholesome. 4. Enu-

merate five stages in the development of the French occupation of Canada. 5. Name and locate the French towns and forts in North America beginning with New Orleans (map, pages 442-443).

References: Robinson and Beard, *Readings in Modern European History*, 1-27; Lawrence, *Movements in European History*, xv; D. Ogg, *Europe in the Seventeenth Century;* H. O. Wakeman, *The Ascendancy of France*, 1598-1715, especially vii and ix.

CHAPTER XXXIX

GROWTH OF PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND THE FIRST BRITISH COLONIAL EMPIRE

Questions: 1. "History is the evolution of the unforeseen." How do the British two-party system and government through cabinets and Prime Ministers illustrate this principle? 2. Give reasons for considering the union of England and Scotland very important. 3. Make a list of sovereign states in Europe, 1650, from the map on page 417. 4. Make a list of the English colonies on the Atlantic Coast in the order of their foundation. 5. Name the classes of people that were unwelcome in the Massachusetts Colony. What was the role of these classes in the development of North America? 6. Name the New England States. To what extent is this name inaccurate?

References: Wallace, *A New History of Great Britain and Canada*, Part I, Chapters iv-v, Part iii, Chapters ii-iv; Philip's *New Historical Atlas*, 54a, Introduction 54-55; Muzzey, *An American History*, ii; J. Morgan, *The Birth of the American People;* W. H. Woodward, *A Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire*, 1500-1930; J. E. Cooke, *My Lady Pokahontas; a true relation of Virginia;* J. G. Austin, *Standish of Standish; a story of the Pilgrims;* W. M. Thackeray, *The Virginians.*

CHAPTER XL

FIRST STAGES OF WORLD TRADE

Questions: 1. Explain the part played by the Hudson's Bay Company and the British East India Company in building the British Empire. 2. Describe the trading methods of the Hudson's Bay Company. 3. Distinguish between a pirate ship and a "privateer". 4. Write an account of the traffic in sugar, molasses and rum. 5. Trace the origin and increase of negro slavery. 6. What did the first colonists expect to grow in America? What industries developed that were not foreseen?

References: Cudmore, *History of the World's Commerce*, Part iii; P. F. Alexander, *Earliest Voyages Round the World;* G. Bryce, *Remarkable History of the Hudson's Bay Company;* A. C. Laut, *Conquest of the Great Northwest; being the story of the adventurers of England known as the Hudson's Bay Co.;* F. C. Bradler, *Piracy in the West Indies and its Suppression;* Kingsley, *Westward Ho!*

CHAPTER XLI

THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

THE CHIEF CHANGES OF THE CENTURY

Questions: 1. Give four reasons for the increase of population during the eighteenth century. 2. Justify the idea that the eighteenth was the

first forward-looking century. 3. Explain the principle called the Balance of Power. 4. Name some unique characteristics of the eighteenth century. 5. What nation disappeared from the map of Europe during the century?

References: Robinson and Beard, *History of Europe, Our own Times*' 1-202, especially 74-100; P. Guedalla, *A Textbook of European History*' 1715-1815 (difficult, but the table of Contents affords a synopsis of the century); Woodward, *An Outline History of the British Empire from 1500 to 1932;* Finnemore, *Social Life in England;* Dent's, *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia, The Far East,* 22.

CHAPTER XLII

THE RISE OF PRUSSIA AND RUSSIA

Questions: 1. Name the four most famous royal families of the continent of Europe. 2. What part of Germany was not part of the Holy Roman Empire? (map, page 288). 3. Enumerate the traits of Frederick the Great that mark him as an "enlightened despot". 5. Cite four characteristics of Romanov rule. 6. In what respect did the population of Austria-Hungary differ from that of Germany or France? 7. Name three "enlightened despots". 8. Give a definition of "Dynastic War". 9. How was the fate of Canada affected by the Peace of Utrecht, 1713? 10. Give two reasons for England taking part in continental wars during the eighteenth century. 11. Write a paragraph on Wolfe and Clive as empire-builders. 12. Name the countries of Europe that have sea-fronts on the Atlantic Ocean. How did their history differ from that of inland countries like Austria-Hungary?

References: Macmillan's *Historical Atlas of Modern Europe,* 4 and 6; Robinson and Beard, *Readings in Modern European History,* 57-66, 200-220; Lawrence, *Movements in European History.* xvii; C. D. Burns, *A Short History of International Intercourse,* iv (Enlightenment); A. H. Johnston, *Age of the Enlightened Despot;* Platonov, *History of Russia,* vi-vii; Robinson and Beard, *Readings in Modern European History,* 90-98; Dent's *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia,* India, 1765, 19.

CHAPTER XLIII

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Questions: 1. Make a list of the grievances of the English colonies. 2. Explain why the Stamp Act caused more irritation than other laws. 3. State the occasion of the meetings of the first Congress. 4. State the military plans of the British (*a*) in the first part of the war and (*b*) in the latter part. 5. Explain the importance for Canada of the possession by the British of the port of New York.

References: Harper's *Atlas of American History,* 16, 18, 19; Muzzey, *An American History,* 110-132; J. T. Adams, *The Epic of America,* 72-95; Beard and Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization,* v; C. H. Van Tyne, *England and America: Rivals in the American Revolution;* Bassett, *A Short History of the United States,* 1492-1929, ix; W. G. Sims, *The Partisan.*

CHAPTER XLIV

THE NEW PATTERN OF GOVERNMENT
THE YOUNG REPUBLIC ON TRIAL

Questions: 1. When and where did the Constitutional Convention meet? 2. Make a list of the powers of the President. 3. What power has Congress that is lacking to the President? 4. Explain the term "Electoral College". 5. State three reasons for considering the American Constitution a wise instrument of government. 6. Cite two reasons that justify Washington being called the "Father of his Country". 7. Explain what is meant by the Louisiana Purchase. 8. Name four causes that led to the war of 1812-1814.

References: MUZZEY, *An American History*, 135-189; J. T. ADAMS *The Epic of America*, 96-119; A. B. HART, *Source Book of American History;* BASSETT, *A Short History of the United States;* BEARD AND BEARD, *The Rise of American Civilization;* J. BARNES, *Yankee Ships and Yankee Sailors;* S. E. WHITE, *Daniel Boone, Wilderness Scout;* J. F. COOPER, *The Spy;* S. W. MITCHELL, *The Red City.*

CHAPTER XLV

THE BEGINNINGS OF CANADA

Questions: 1. Name the five separate settlements out of which the Dominion of Canada developed. 2. Name the same in order of settlement. 3. In what respect have the United Empire Loyalists affected the whole of Canada? 4. Explain the importance of British Columbia in the development of the Dominion of Canada. 5. Name seven famous explorers who contributed to the world's knowledge of the Pacific Coast of Canada.

References: WALLACE, *A New History of Great Britain and Canada;* Canada, 63-73; G. M. WRONG, *The Rise and Fall of New France;* LAUT, *Pioneers of the Pacific Coast;* also *Pathfinders of the West;* F. W. HOWAY, *British Columbia, the Making of a Province*, I-XII; CUDMORE, *History of the World's Commerce*, Part V, I-IV.

CHAPTER XLVI

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

Questions: 1. What was meant by the Estates General of France? What events led to their assembling in 1789? 2. Name two increases of knowledge that affected men's opinions in the eighteenth century. 3. Quote two statements of Rousseau. 4. Explain the difference between a "theist" (Greek, *theos*, 'god') and a "deist" (Latin, *deus*, 'god'). 5. Name four printed works of the eighteenth century that influenced public opinion. 6. Enumerate the stages of the Revolution in Paris between 1789 and 1795.

References: ROBINSON AND BEARD, *History of Europe, Our Own Times*, 101-151; *Readings in Modern European History*, 138-196; 248-307; N. H. WEBSTER, *The French Revolution;* LAWRENCE, *Movements in European History*, XVI: C. DICKENS, *Tale of Two Cities.*

CHAPTER XLVII

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

Questions: 1. Cite three instances of the good fortune that attended Napoleon for a time. 2. Whom was Napoleon imitating when he planned to conquer Egypt and march to India? 3. Two plans of Napoleon affected the United States. Explain when and how. 4. Compare the crowning of Napoleon by the Pope with that of Charles the Great. 5. Enumerate some benefits that Napoleon bestowed upon France. 6. Enumerate the steps in Napoleon's rise and downfall. 7. What countries in Europe were never mastered by Napoleon (map, page 521)? 8. Explain why England was the chief obstacle to Napoleon's plans.

References: Robinson and Beard, *History of Europe, Our Own Times*, 152-192; *Readings in Modern European History*, 309-369; H. A. L. Fisher, *Napoleon;* Emil Ludwig, *Napoleon.*

CHAPTER XLVIII

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

THE WORLD IN 1815

Questions: 1. Write a sentence on each of the following countries in 1815: Africa, India, China, Japan. 2. Cite examples of humanitarian movements. 3. Name seven scientific inventions of the nineteenth century. 4. Trace the beginning and the increase in use of the steam-engine. 5. Name two ideas that revolutionized thought in the nineteenth century. 6. Name two ways in which the United States affected European affairs in the nineteenth century.

References: Macmillan's *Historical Atlas of Modern Europe*, I; Dent's *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia*, Russian Advances, 25; S. A. Pakeman, *The Modern World*, 1789-1931; Ed. Fueter, *World History*, 1815-1920, 1-19; Robinson and Beard, *History of Europe, Our Own Times*, 193-209; C. D. Burns, *A Short History of International Intercourse*, V-VI; E. Lipson, *Europe in the Nineteenth Century: An Outline History;* Cudmore, *History of the World's Commerce*, Part IV, especially 144-162; F. J. C. Hearnshaw, *Main Currents of European History*, 1815-1915; E. P. Cheyney, *Industrial and Social History of England.*

CHAPTER XLIX

EXTENSION OF THE AMERICAN PATTERN

Questions: 1. Write a paragraph each on Simon Bolivar and San Martin. 2. Enumerate the chief reasons for rebellion in the Spanish colonies. 3. Make a list of the new Latin American Republics. 4. Define the Monroe Doctrine and explain its influence upon World History. Explain why a king was given to Greece, why its territory was small, and how it was able to survive as a weak nation.

References: Ed. Fueter, *World History*, 1815-1920, VIII and IX; W. S. Robertson, *History of Latin-American Nations*, VI; J. Mavrogordato, *Modern Greece*, 1800-1931.

CHAPTER L

SOCIALISM, TRADE AND POPULATION

Questions: 1. Cite a definition of Socialism. 2. Summarize the history of Socialism as a movement. 3. Explain the differences between Socialism, Communism and Marxism. 4. Show how Socialism has worked as an educational influence. 5. Write a paragraph on the Revolution of 1848 in Paris. 6. Explain why the Reform Bill of 1832 was so moderate. Enumerate some of the evils that still remained. 7. Make a list of the years from 1832 to 1918 in which reforms were made in Great Britain in the interests of the common people. Opposite each date make a memo of the reform granted. 8. Explain why Socialism made little headway in the United States. 9. Contrast the course of reforms in Germany with those in England. 10. Mention seven reasons to account for the increase of population in Europe between 1815 and 1914. 11. Mention seven improvements in food or comfort that took place in the nineteenth century.

References: *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, 20, 888-897, *Socialism;* Robinson and Beard, *Readings in Modern European History*, 239-289; Schapiro, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, ix and xvi; E. Scott, *Men and Thought in Modern History*, xi, xii, xvii and xviii (Marx, Cobden, Gladstone and Disraeli); Vladmir Lenin, *The State and Revolution;* G. B. Shaw, *The Intelligent Woman's Guide to Capitalism and Socialism;* Wells, *New Worlds for Old;* G. D. H. Cole, *Self-Government in Industry.*

CHAPTER LI

NAPOLEON III AND THE CRIMEAN WAR

Questions: 1. Explain how the Second Empire was set up in France. Why Second Empire (page 519)? 2. Explain the importance of Sebastopol. 3. Mention some mistakes of the British in the Crimean War. 4. Write a paragraph on the character of Napoleon III.

References: Schapiro, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, xii, xiii and xviii; Ed. Fueter, *World History*, 1815-1920, xxii.

CHAPTER LII

EMERGENCE OF ITALY AND GERMANY AS NATIONAL STATES

Questions: 1. Make a list of the chief divisions of Italy from the map on page 560. 2. Explain how far Italy had progressed towards unity in 1860, 1861, and 1870 respectively. 3. Count Cavour has been judged to be one of the great men of the nineteenth century because his work was lasting. Write a paragraph on what he accomplished. 4. Give an account of the progress made under parliamentary government in Italy after 1871. 5. Describe the changes made in Germany from the time of Napoleon to that of Bismarck. 6. Quote a typical declaration of Bismarck. 7. Describe Bismarck's methods of making war and cite two examples. 8. Explain the importance of the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871.

References: Macmillan's *Historical Atlas of Modern Europe*, 2, 5 and 7; Robinson and Beard, *History of Europe, Our Own Times*, Italy, 273-287,

Germany, 288-323; *Readings in Modern European History*, Vol. II, xxi-xxii; Lawrence, *Movements in European History*, xviii-xix; L. C. Jane, *From Metternich to Bismarck, A Textbook of European History*, 1815-1878, especially viii-ix; E. Lipson, *Europe in the Nineteenth Century.*

CHAPTER LIII

THE PARTITION OF AFRICA

Questions: 1. Explain why Africa failed to interest the nations of Europe until the nineteenth century. 2. Show how the possession of India affected the attitude of the British towards affairs in Africa. 3. Enumerate the motives that actuated the nations of Europe in entering Africa and show how new motives arose later. 4. Cite three ways in which the British occupation of Egypt influenced the course of World History. 5. Make a list of the benefits conferred upon Egypt by the British. 6. Give in your own words an account of the events leading up to the Fashoda Incident. 7. Locate on the map the holdings of the various European countries in Africa in 1914 (page 577).

References: Macmillan's *Historical Atlas of Modern Europe*, 9; Wallace, *A New History of Great Britain and Canada*, Part II, Chap. vii; Ed. Fueter, *World History*, 1815-1920, xxix; Schapiro, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, xxxi; I. L. Evans, *The British in Tropical Africa;* Sir H. H. Johnston, *A History of the Colonization of Africa by Alien Races;* H. M. Stanley, *In Darkest Africa;* C. Akeley, *In Brightest Africa.*

CHAPTER LIV

EUROPEAN ACTIVITIES IN ASIA

Questions: 1. Trace the course of colonial activity among Europeans from the discovery of America until the Great War. 2. Indicate the general tendencies of Russian, British and French activities in Asia. 3. Give an account of relationships between Russia and China from 1689 to 1858. 4. Explain Russia's motives in subduing the races of Central Asia. 5. Make a list of the benefits conferred upon India by British rule. 6. Give three examples of arrogant conduct on the part of Chinese officials. 7. Make a list of the concessions granted by the Chinese to foreigners in accordance with the treaties of 1843 and 1858. 8. Explain the trouble caused by the collection of customs duties in China and the method of overcoming it. 9. Write an account of the increase of French territory in Indo-China. 10. Give an account in your own words of the incidents that induced Japan to open her doors to European trade. 11. Enumerate seven causes of resentment on the part of the Chinese that led to the Boxer Rebellion of 1900. 12. What did Russia lose and Japan gain by the Russo-Japanese War?

References: Schapiro, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, xxx; Ed. Fueter, *World History*, 1815-1920, xviii-xix; Woodward, *An Outline History of the British Empire*, xii; V. A. Smith, *The Oxford Student's History of India*, Books V and VI (summaries lacking); K. S. Latourette, *The Development of Japan;* O. Lattimore, *Manchuria, Cradle of Conflicts.*

CHAPTER LV

ANGLO-SAXON COUNTRIES

Questions: 1. Mention three particulars in which Anglo-Saxon countries resemble one another and differ from continental nations of Europe. 2. Why does the map of Canada resemble that of the United States more than that of Europe? 3. Explain the importance of the invention of the cotton-gin. How many inventions can you name that have influenced the course of history more? 4. Name the three elements of the typical American and Canadian rural community in the nineteenth century. 5. Name one respect in which the United States and Canada influenced Europe in the nineteenth century. 6. What were the two stages of the Industrial Revolution in America? 7. What was the attitude in England towards the American Civil War (*a*) of the working classes (*b*) of the Government? In what two ways did the Government reveal its sympathies? 8. Why was the Dominion of Canada formed in 1867 and not at an earlier date or some years later? 9. Quote Disraeli's opinion of British colonies. 10. Explain the position of Canada in the Anglo-Saxon World. 11. Give reasons for the generous treatment of British Columbia when it was admitted to the Dominion of Canada. 12. Tabulate the resemblances and differences between Canada and the United States. 13. Name four Anglo-Saxon countries of which the history has been influenced by the discovery of gold. Dates. 14. Comment upon the significance of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee in 1897. 15. Show how Canada has influenced the development of Australia and South Africa.

References: Ed. Fueter, *World History*, 1815-1920, xviii, xxiv, xxx, especially xxxi; W. B. Munro, *American Government To-day;* Herbertson and Howarth, *The Oxford Survey of the British Empire, Australasia;* E. Walker, *History of South Africa;* H. B. Stowe, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.

CHAPTER LVI

THE BALKAN QUESTION

Questions: 1. Explain why a small country like Greece was able to play such an important part in Ancient History and cannot but remain an unimportant country in modern times. 2. Show how the Great Powers closed in upon Austria during the nineteenth century. 3. Show the varying attitudes of the European nations towards the Turks from the time of the Crusades to the Great War. 4. State the policy adopted by the Great Powers towards the Balkans at the Congress of Vienna in 1878. 5. Sketch the route of the proposed Berlin to Bagdad railway. 6. What was remarkable about the Treaty of London, 1913? 7. Explain why the Great War began in the Balkans and not in one of the Atlantic States of Europe. Which was more to blame, the force of circumstances or the ambition of the Kaiser and his military friends?

References: Macmillan's *Historical Atlas of Modern Europe*, 9; Ed. Fueter, *World History*, 1815-1920, xxxiii; Robinson and Beard, *History of Europe, Our Own Times*, 531-545; Schapiro, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, 477-483.

CHAPTER LVII

THE GREAT WAR

Questions: 1. Explain the obligations that drew Great Britain into the War. 2. Show how the Great War was different from all previous wars.

3. Explain the importance of the Marne, Calais, Dunkirk, Ypres and Verdun in the first three years of the fighting. In what battles were the Canadians engaged? 4. Make a general statement of the position of the Allies at the end of 1917. 5. Describe the steps by which the United States were brought into the War. 6. What was the declared purpose of President Wilson in entering the War? 7. How many of the President's Fourteen Points imply the principle of the right of self-determination for small racial units? Give numbers. 8. Name the kings or emperors who lost their thrones in 1918.

References: SCHAPIRO, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, XXXIV-XXXV; J. H. ROSE, *The Origins of the War;* J. S. EWART, *The Roots and Causes of the War;* C. J. H. HAYES, *A Brief History of the Great War;* MR. PUNCH'S *History of the Great War;* SIR H. MACKINDER, *The World War and After;* T. E. LAWRENCE, *Revolt in the Desert;* J. W. DAFOE, *Over the Canadian Battlefields;* W. B. KERR, *Shrieks and Crashes.*

CHAPTER LVIII

THE PEACE CONFERENCE

Questions: 1. Name the one Asiatic power represented on the Supreme Council at the Peace Conference. 2. Define the nature of the Covenant and the aim of the League of Nations. 3. State the difference between the Assembly and the Council of the League. 4. Give reasons for considering the organization of the League a milestone in World History. 5. Explain the reasons for the United States declining to join the League. 6. Name and locate on the map (page 656), seven new States that were created by the Peace Treaties. 7. State some of the responsibilities of a nation accepting a Mandate from the League of Nations. 8. Explain the difference between Reparations and War Debts as the terms are popularly used. 9. In what respects does the International Labour Organization differ from previous bodies of a similar kind. 10. State what the Organization has already accomplished. 11. Where does the Permanent Court of International Justice meet and why there?

References: SCHAPIRO, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, XXXVI; BUELL, *Europe, A History of Ten Years*, XX; A. ZIMMERN, *Learning and Leadership;* T. MARBURG, *League of Nations;* Encyclopaedia Britannica, 13, 829-844; Text of the Covenant, 832-836.

CHAPTER LIX

THE WORLD SINCE THE GREAT WAR
THE MAIN DRIFTS

Questions: 1. State what each of these countries offered for imitation in the nineteenth century: (*a*) England, (*b*) the United States, (*c*) France. 2. State three reasons for the failure of parliamentary government on the continent of Europe. 3. Name three ideals of government that struggle for the mastery in contemporary Europe. 4. Mention three points of resemblance between France and Japan. 5. Name the only really independent State in Africa. 6. Assign reasons for the world-wide depression of business in 1929-1933.

References: BUELL, *A History of Ten Years;* LANGSAM, *The World Since 1914;* F. L. BENNS, *Europe Since 1914;* SCHAPIRO, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, XXXIX-XL.

CHAPTER LX

ANGLO-SAXON COUNTRIES AND INDIA

Questions: 1. State reasons for the resistance to Socialism in Anglo-Saxon countries in general and the United States and Canada in particular. 2. Mention two examples of British patriotism in recent years and a revolutionary change in Britain's trade policy. 3. Cite examples of the influence of Canada upon the policies of the mother-country. 4. Explain why Labour Parties influence political life less in the United States and Canada than (*a*) in Great Britain, (*b*) Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. 5. Name the six self-governing Dominions of the British Empire. 6. When was the word Dominion first used as a political term in British history? Quote the definition of Dominions as stated by the Imperial Conference of 1926. 7. What is the significance of the Statute of Westminster, 1932? 8. Show the absurdity of the abolition by the Parliament of the Irish Free State of the oath of allegiance to the British Crown. 9. Mention three events that awoke the interest of western nations in the affairs of the Far East. 10. What principle adopted at the Peace Conference was of special interest to India? 11. In what way has the development of self-government in Canada affected India? 12. Cite reasons for hesitating to give self-rule to India.

References: SCHAPIRO, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, 785-793, 829-30; BUELL, *Europe, A History of Ten Years*, VIII; BENNS, *Europe Since 1914*, XV, (Ireland); ANDRÉ SIEGFRIED, *England's Crisis;* B. WILLIAMS, *The British Empire;* S. GWYNN, *A Student's History of Ireland;* R. J. MINNEY, *India Marches Past;* J. D. ANDERSON, *Peoples of India;* L. S. S. O'MALLEY, *Indian Caste Customs;* F. YEATS-BROWN, *Bengal Lancer;* GORDON SINCLAIR, *Footloose in India;* CARL WITTKE, *A History of Canada.*

CHAPTER LXI

FRANCE

Questions: 1. Explain how the popular estimate of French national character was changed during the War. 2. Cite five reasons that justified France in feeling wronged. 3. Write two sentences upon each of the following as applied to France (*a*) reconstruction, (*b*) security, (*c*) finance. 4. Explain the error made by Frenchmen, misled by the experience of the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871. 5. Explain what was learned by the failure of the Geneva Protocol as a peace plan. 6. Define the word protocol. 7. When the value of the franc was fixed at 0.392 cents, how much money in dollars and cents would a Frenehman lose who had bought a 10,000 franc bond of his Government when the franc stood at 19.3 cents? 8. Name the three chief expenditures that caused the fall of the franc. 9. Make a list of French colonies marked on the maps on pages 721 and 769. 10. Cite seven great advantages of France as a nation. State whether Germany possesses any of these.

References: BUELL, *Europe, A History of Ten Years*, IV and VII; LANGSAM, *The World Since 1914*, VII and XII; BENNS, *Europe Since 1914*, X and XIII; DENT'S *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia*, Siam and French Indo-China, 70-71; ANDRÉ SIEGFRIED, *France—A Study in Nationality.*

CHAPTER LXII

JAPAN

Questions: 1. In what respects does Japan resemble (*a*) France, (*b*) Anglo-Saxon countries? 2. Mention five factors that have rendered Manchuria important in the last forty years. 3. Name three treaties or pacts by which Japan bound herself between 1920 and 1930. 4. Cite the arguments urged by Japan in defence of her invasion of Manchuria in 1931. 5. Make a summary of the operations from 1931 to 1933 by which Japan secured her control of Manchuria.

References: DENT'S *Literary and Historical Atlas of Asia,* Manchuria, 90, 95; OWEN LATTIMORE, *Manchuria, Cradle of Conflicts;* Japan Tourist Bureau, *Pocket Guide to Japan,* (illustrated); MURRAY'S *Hand-Book for Japan;* E. W. CLEMENT, *A Handbook to Modern Japan;* LAFCADIO HEARN, *Glimpses of Unfamiliar Japan;* E. I. SUGIMOTO, *A Daughter of the Samurai;* Y. KANG, *Grass Roof* (Korea).

CHAPTER LXIII

SOVIET RUSSIA

Questions: 1. Compare the territorial possessions of Soviet Russia with those of the British Empire. 2. Make a list of the various elements comprised in the Soviet Government. 3. Explain the position of Joseph Stalin in the administration of Russia. 4. Enumerate those respects in which the soviet plan of education differs from that in vogue in Canada or the United States. 5. Describe the Five Year Plan under these heads (*a*) production of power, (*b*) manufacturing, (*c*) agriculture. 6. Contrast the principles of the Soviet with those of Anglo-Saxon countries.

References: I. I. MARSHAK, *New Russia's Primer; the Story of the Five Year Plan;* BUELL, *Europe, A History of Ten Years,* XIII; BENNS, *Europe Since 1914,* XVII; W. H. CHAMBERLIN, *The Soviet Planned Economic Order;* ELIAS TOBENKIN, *Stalin's Ladder;* F. GRIFFIN, *Soviet Scene.*

CHAPTER LXIV

THE REPUBLIC OF TURKEY

Questions: 1. Name five respects in which modern Turkey contrasts with Turkey before the Great War. 2. Demonstrate the resemblance of the Republic of Turkey to Soviet Russia in respect of (*a*) education, (*b*) the industrial programme, (*c*) methods of reform. 3. Show how Europeans or European ideas have been invading Asia by land and sea. Make a list of European nations that rule parts of Asia.

References: HALIDE EDIB, *Turkey Faces West;* GRACE ELLISON, *Turkey To-Day.*

CHAPTER LXV

ITALIAN FASCISM

Questions: 1. Explain the origin and meaning of the word Fascism (page 138). 2. Give reasons for the failure of both parliamentary government and Socialism in Italy. 3. Mention some of the ideals renounced by Fascism. 4. Mention features of Fascism that Anglo-Saxons would be unwilling to

tolerate. 5. In respect of what matter did the Fascist Government clash with the Roman Catholic Church? 6. Explain how it has come about that the Pope no longer considers himself a prisoner in the Vatican Palace. 7. Write a short essay on the topic, "When democracy fails, it fails through lack of self-discipline." Name countries which have lately restored discipline by one form of despotism or another.

References: Encyclopaedia Britannica, 9, 101-106; Statistics of Fascism, *World Almanac*, 1933, pp. 669-670; BUELL, *Europe, A History of Ten Years*, XVII; BENNS, *Europe Since 1914*, XVI; F. NITTI, *Bolshevism, Fascism, and Democracy;* TOMASO SILLANI, *What is Fascism and Why?*

CHAPTER LXVI

THE REPUBLICS OF GERMANY AND AUSTRIA

Questions: 1. Define what is meant by a sovereign State. 2. Select from the list the new States formed in accordance with the Peace Treaties. 3. Explain what is meant by "racial minorities" in Europe, and select a good example. 4. Cite three costly disadvantages of the increase in the number of states. 5. Account for the increase of armaments since the War. 6. Account for the failure of parliamentary government in States of Central Europe since the War. 7. Explain how the German system of voting increased the difficulties of parliamentary government. 8. Make a list of grievances that justified the growing resentment of the German people between 1920 and 1933. 9. Cite the resemblances between National Socialism and Fascism. 10. State the peculiarly German element in Hitler's programme. 11. Describe the methods by which all organizations except the Nazis were expelled from the political arena. 12. Explain what is meant by Pan-Germanism. 13. Explain why Austria became a special ward of the League of Nations. 14. Name three countries that are especially menaced by the Pan-German movement. Why should it alarm France in particular?

References: LANGSAM, *The World Since 1914*, XV (1933); BUELL, *Europe, A History of Ten Years*, III and IX.

CHAPTER LXVII

THE SUCCESSION STATES

Questions: 1. Count and name the panel of States that were created or enlarged by the Peace Treaties, map, page 656. 2. Name two features common to these States. 3. Give the boundaries of Yugoslavia. 4. Give the boundaries of Rumania. 5. In what respect does Hungary differ from neighbouring states? 6. Account for the dictatorship of Pilsudski in Poland. 7. Explain the arrangements by which a sea-front and a port were secured for Poland at the Peace Conference. 8. Characterize in general terms the governments, occupations, and religions of the four Baltic Republics. 9. Summarize the measures of the new republican government in Spain.

References: MACMILLAN'S *Historical Atlas of Modern Europe*, 3 and 11; BUELL, *Europe, A History of Ten Years*, XI, XII and XVI; SCHAPIRO, *Modern and Contemporary European History*, 807-816 (1931); LANGSAM, *Europe Since 1914* (1933).

CHAPTER LXVIII

THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

Questions: 1. Enumerate the injuries to Chinese pride since the first arrival of Europeans in Chinese ports. 2. Name the four revolutions which China has been compelled to experience. 3. Name some features of the programme of the Republic of China for social reforms. 4. Explain the reason for foreign nations remaining in control of the Chinese customs houses.

References: Paul Monro, *China, A Nation in Evolution;* L. S. Hsu, *Sun Yat-Sen, His Political and Social Ideals;* R. C. Andrews, *Across Mongolian Plains; A Naturalist's Account of China's Great Northwest;* F. A. Ossendowski, *Beasts, Men and Gods;* Pearl Buck, *East Wind, West Wind;* E. Cooper, *My Lady of the Chinese Courtyard;* Princess Su Ling, *Lotus Petals.*

CHAPTER LXIX

ASIA, AFRICA AND LATIN AMERICA

Questions: 1. Make a list of the political divisions of Asia and state what form of government each possesses, map, page 721. 2. Quote the title of the king of Ethiopia. 3. Make a list of the political divisions of Africa and name the sovereign State that is responsible for the government of each. 3. Make a numbered list of Latin-American Republics, beginning with Mexico. 4. Enumerate the merits of Latin-American races.

References: P. W. Harrison, *The Arab at Home;* W. M. McGovern, *To Lhasa in Disguise;* P. R. DuChaillu, *The Country of the Dwarfs* (Africa); Janet Miller, *Jungles Preferred;* W. S. Robertson, *History of the Latin-American Nations,* xix; André Siegfried, *Impressions of South America;* James Bryce, *South America.*

CHAPTER LXX

THE PROGRESS OF PEACE

Questions: 1. Make lists of the member nations of the League according to continents. Which continent has the largest number, and which the smallest? 2. Cite three successful efforts of the League to prevent war or alleviate distress. 3. Describe the procedure of the League in dealing with the invasion of Manchuria by Japan in 1931. 4. Explain the reasons for the Washington Arms Conference of 1921-1922. 5. State the pledge taken by the nations that have subscribed to the Briand-Kellogg or Paris Peace Pact. 6. State two features possessed in common by the United States and the Latin-American Republics. 7. State one general and one special reason for the failure of Arms Conferences.

References: Buell, *Europe, A History of Ten Years,* xix; J. T. Shotwell, *Building International Goodwill;* R. McElroy, *The Pathway of Peace;* N. W. Rowell, *The British Empire and World Peace.*

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